DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 322 838 HE 023 780

AUTHOR	Ebuchi, Kazuhiro, Ed.
TITLE	Foreign Students and Internationalization of Higher Education. Proceedings of OECD/Japan Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students (Hiroshima, Japan, November 8-10, 1988).
INSTITUTION	Hiroshima Univ. (Japan). Research Inst. for Higher Education.
PUB DATE	Dec 89
NOTE	303p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, Higashisenda-machi, Naka-ku, Hiroshima, Japan 730.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Books (010)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	College Programs; *Cross Cultural Studies; Cultural Background; *Educational Policy; Foreign Countries; *Foreign Students; Higher Education; *International Education; *School Policy; Social Adjustment; *Student Adjustment
IDENTIFIERS	Australia; Great Britain; Japan

ABSTRACT

This volume reports on a seminar structured around three themes: institutional policies toward the flow of foreign students in member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD); specific measures and programs for foreign students; and social and cultural adjustment by foreign students. The volume contains seminar papers, rapporteurs' reports, and summaries of discussions. The following papers are included: "Policy Trends and Issues Regarding Foreign Students in Japan" (Shigeto Kawano); "Foreign Students: A Leading Edge for Change" (OECD/CERI Secretariat); "Foreign Students and Internationalization of the University: A View from Japanese Perspective" (Kazuhiro Ebuchi); "International Students in Higher Education: Institutional Policy Issues" (Seth Spaulding); "Measures and Impacts of Foreign Student Participation in the United States Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Research Perspectives" (Douglas Windham and Alan Wagner); "Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students: Some Lessons from British Experience" (Maureen Woodhall); "Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students: A View from the Sending Country" (Klaus Schnitzer); "Institutional Responses to Socio-Cultural Adjustment: Problems of Foreign Students in Japan" (Asako Uehara and Joe Hicks); "Social and Cultural Adjustment of Foreign Students: Experience from Western Europe" (Hans Schutze); "Social and Cultural Adjustment by Foreign Students: The Australian Experience" (Brigid Ballard); "Foreign Student Adjustment: Issues and Perspectives" (Philip Altbach); "Institutional Policies and Measures for Foreign Students in Selected OECD Countries: Summary of Country Reports" (OECD/CERI Secretariat). Appendices contain a scope and issues paper prepared for the seminar by the OECD/CERI Secretariat and data on foreign student enrollment in selected OCED member countries. (JDD)

ED322838

Proceedings of OECD/JAPAN Seminar
on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Research Institute for Higher Education Hiroshima University
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
● This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
● Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

HE 023 780

1989
RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION
RIHE
HIROSHIMA UNIVERSITY

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Proceedings of OECD/JAPAN Seminar
on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

1989
RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION
HIROSHIMA UNIVERSITY

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Edited by Kazuhiro Ebuchi
Published by:
Research Institute for Higher Education
Hiroshima University
Higashisenda-machi, Naka-ku,
Hiroshima, Japan 730
Telephone: 082-243-7193
Printed by:
Seikosha Printing Co., Ltd.
3-8, 2 chome, Honkawa-cho, Naka-ku,
Hirosima, Japan 730

December, 1989

PREFACE

An international seminar on the Flow of Foreign Students and Internationalization of Higher Education was held in Hiroshima, November 8-10, 1988. This seminar was organized by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and the University of Hiroshima in cooperation with OECD/CERI. The Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE) took the role of program coordinator for the entire seminar.

Today, the flow of foreign students has attracted a great deal of national concern in Japan in view of its impact upon internationalization of university. It is recognized that this has become a world-wide issue. While facing its own problems caused by the flow of foreign students, every OECD member country seems to be actively responding toward improvement of education for them. The United States of America, for instance, has become a world center for foreign students with the world's largest population of foreign students enrolled in her institutions; furthermore, the presence of these foreign students is causing tremendous impact upon the organization of the university. In European countries, the planning of an ambitious project on international student mobility called "ERASMUS" is getting under way, irrespective of the recent trends of controlled policies toward the flow of foreign students because of the overall economic and financial stringency.

In Japan, an active governmental policy promoting the increase of foreign students is under way. It is our understanding and hope that the flow of foreign students will become a "leading edge" to reform the university in terms of the institutional goals and philosophy, admission, curriculum, teaching, administration, etc. This should be done in order to get the Japanese universities more internationalized by which we mean the developing of a more sophisticated education which is widely applicable not only to Japanese students but non-domestic students as well. We are in urgent need of internationalizing the university and believe that other nations must have the same need. It is our hope that information exchange at the seminar among national representatives and experts from various countries will produce a great deal of ideas and solutions to improve both education and educational conditions for foreign students.

Succeeding the first seminar held in the Netherlands in 1985, in which governmental policies toward the flow of foreign students were discussed, we planned to focus upon such problems as institutional policies toward the flow of foreign students, institutional measures and programs for foreign students, and institutional responses toward social and cultural adjustment of foreign students.

Nearly forty overseas participants including national representatives and experts from fourteen countries and one-hundred and nine Japanese participants including observers who represented various institutions and organizations from all over Japan joined the three-day seminar. As you will see in this collection of works, both the quality of the papers presented and the productive discussion that ensued were quite impressive.

This volume is the proceedings of the above seminar, which includes (1) all the presented papers (keynote reports and working papers), (2) rapporteurs' reports, and (3) summary papers of discussion. It is our sincere hope that this book will make some contributions to develop a research agenda for the future international projects and conferences concerning the betterment of foreign student education in the OECD member countries.

Masao Seki
Director and Professor
R.I.H.E.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There were so many people who were involved in this project and we would like to extend our hearty gratitude to all of those who helped us in one way or the other. But our special thanks should go, first of all, to all of those distinguished participants who took the responsibility of acting as chairpersons, reading papers, presenting oral reports, preparing rapporteur's reports, and/or joining discussions actively and enthusiastically throughout the sessions. Without the kind help and cooperation of these participants, our seminar would not have been successful. In particular, we are very grateful to the staff members of the OECD/CERI Secretariat who graciously advised and supported us during the organization of the program. We are also very thankful to the staff members of the Bureau of Science and International Affairs of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture who made arrangements to allocate necessary funds for this seminar. Many of our colleagues at Hiroshima University also worked very hard to support this seminar and the staff members of the Administrative Offices and the Library of Hiroshima University provided greatly needed support by organizing a task force for the seminar. We are very appreciative of these faculty and staff members' kind cooperation. In editing these proceedings, we are very appreciative of those authors who contributed their excellent papers to this volume. Here special mention should be made about the papers contributed by OECD/CERI Secretariat. Furthermore, they were very generous in granting us permission to use all of those papers for this volume. In this respect, we are very thankful to Mr. G.S. Papadopoulos, Deputy Director for Education, OECD/CERI for his generosity and kindness. Mr. Alan Wagner and Mr. Kaoru Okamoto kindly made all the arrangements necessary for formal permission being granted from OECD/CERI. Finally, we would like to send our gratitude to our administrative-secretarial staff members at RIHE who helped the editor in various ways. Among others, special thanks go to Ms. Mariko Sakamoto for her indispensable help with transcribing tapes, typing manuscripts, corresponding to overseas contributors, and so forth. Without her dedicated works, we would not have completed these proceedings.

Kazuhiro Ebuchi
Program Coordinator and Editor

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface iii
Acknowledgments v

Introduction

by Kazuhiro Ebuchi 3

Part I. Program and List of Participants

1. Program 10
2. List of Participants 14

Part II. Presented Papers: Keynote Reports and Working Papers

Keynote Reports

1. Policy Trends and Issues regarding Foreign Students in Japan
by Shigeto Kawano 23
2. Foreign Students: A Leading Edge for Change
by OECD/CERI Secretariat 33
3. Foreign Students and Internationalization of the University: A View from Japanese Perspective
by Kazuhiro Ebuchi 45

Working Papers (A): Issues of Specific Measures and Programs for Foreign Students

4. International Students in Higher Education: Institutional Policy Issues
by Seth Spaulding 57
5. Measures and Impacts of Foreign Student Participation in the United States Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Research Perspectives
by Douglas M. Windham and Alan P. Wagner ... 68
6. Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students: Some Lessons from British Experience
by Maureen Woodhall 91
7. Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students: A View from the Sending Country
by Klaus Schnitzer 116

Working Papers (B): Issues of Foreign Student Adjustment

8. Institutional Responses to Socio-Cultural Adjustment: Problems of Foreign Students in Japan
by Asako Uehara and Joe Hicks 129
9. Social and Cultural Adjustment of Foreign Students: Experience from Western Europe
by Hans G. Schütze 144
10. Social and Cultural Adjustment by Foreign Students: The Australian Experience
by Brigid Ballard 160
11. Foreign Student Adjustment: Issues and Perspectives
by Philip G. Altbach 173

Synthesis Paper

12. Institutional Policies and Measures for Foreign Students in Selected OECD Countries: Summary of Country Reports
by OECD/CERI Secretariat 183

Part III. Summary Papers: Discussions and Rapporteurs' Reports

Summary of Discussion

13. Institutional Policies towards the Flow of Foreign Students: A Summary of Panel Discussion
by Kazuhiro Ebuchi 211
14. Networking and Research Agenda for the Future: A Summary of Discussion in the Closing Session
by Kazuhiro Ebuchi 233

Rapporteurs' Reports

15. Rapporteur's Report on Working Group A
by Seth Spaulding 242
16. Rapporteur's Report on Working Group B
by Yoshiya Abe 251
17. General Rapporteur's Report
by Douglas M. Windham 262

Appendix

1. Scope and Issues
by OECD/CERI Secretariat 277
2. Foreign Student Enrollment in Selected OECD Countries 288

INTRODUCTION

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PROCEEDINGS

Kazuhiro Ebuchi

This volume is the proceedings of the second OECD/CERI-related international seminar under the title of "Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students" held in Hiroshima, Japan, 8-10th of November in 1988. The seminar has been organized by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and the University of Hiroshima, for which the Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE) at Hiroshima University assumed the responsibility in coordinating the program and carrying out the activities of the seminar.

Background

A previous OECD seminar on foreign students was held in Zoetermeer, Netherlands in November of 1985 under the title of "Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students" as a part of the Innovation Exchange Activities of CERI. This is the second international seminar and succeeded the Zoetermeer seminar.

In view of the "population explosion of foreign students" in OECD countries and the resultant tasks faced by these countries in coping with this very rapid growth, the past seminar in the Netherlands dealt with foreign student related issues at a macro-level focusing on governmental policies for coping with the flow of foreign students. The seminar revealed that unlike the situation in the past years when relatively few students were enrolled and individual institutions could assume responsibility for receiving and educating foreign students with almost no governmental intervention, the recent unprecedented growth in the foreign student population and resulting state of affairs related to foreign student education has gone far beyond the discretionary powers of individual institutions. Consequently, there has been increasing governmental concern towards establishing foreign student policies in many countries. Thus, the flow of foreign students has become not only an educational but also a significantly political and economic issue in many of the OECD countries.

Since the discussion in Zoetermeer focused upon governmental policies concerning foreign students, the present seminar in Hiroshima was designed to concentrate upon various problems at the institutional level, specifically with the policies as well as practical measures and arrangements which institutions adopt to serve both the training requirements and social and cultural adjustment needs of foreign students enrolling in OECD countries. The objectives of the present seminar were set as the following.

Objectives

Realizing the critical need to share experience and information on foreign student issues, the seminar was structured around the main theme of "foreign students and the internationalization of higher education." The main reason for choosing this theme was as the following.

> It is assumed that with the increase of foreign students, host institutions will soon realize the need for more conscious efforts or self-adjustment processes to modify existing educational programs and instructional methods in the universities. One may expect that such efforts or processes will result in emergence of educational provisions of a higher education system which are more sophisticated, enriched and broadly applicable to students from all backgrounds and countries. If we may call these processes of reform on the hosts' part "internationalization of higher education," then here we are concerned about inquiring into the current situation of internationalization of higher education in the member countries. "Internationalization" is not an easily definable concept but the tentative definition is presented both to convey the essence of the seminar's overall theme and also to stimulate discussion on what the possibilities of internationalization might be. Excerpted from the "Background and Objectives" of the Seminar Program.

Based on this recognition of impact from the flow of foreign students, the framework of the seminar was structured to consist of three concrete sub-themes. These themes defined the main objectives for clarification in the seminar. They were:

1) Institutional policies toward foreign students,
2) Specific measures and programs for foreign students, and
3) Social and cultural adjustment by foreign students.

The first sub-theme aimed at obtaining a comparable knowledge of institutional policies toward foreign students in different cultural contexts of the member countries and their underlying concepts, i.e., philosophical foundations or justification of foreign student education. We were concerned here about rationales of foreign student education, asking why or why not to accept foreign students and what responsibility we have for educating them. The panel discussion scheduled in the first day afternoon focused on this theme.

The second sub-theme was directed to deal with various problems concerning specific measures and programs which included such foreign student related matters as language training, orientation toward campus life, curriculum, degree-granting, etc. The third sub-theme concerned itself about discussing problems pertaining to social and cultural adjustment of foreign students both on and off campus, which included appropriate lodging, financial situation (scholarship), interpersonal relationships, cultural learning, etc. These two themes were pursued through paper presentations and discussion in two separate working groups of the second day.

In order to stimulate discussion of these three sub-themes, relevant statements and materials excerpted from country reports were presented as the basic source of information in addition to experts' papers. The scope of the seminar was directed principally toward the issues and problems facing OECD countries as hosts to foreign students. During the course of the seminar, innovative approaches and practices with respect to foreign students, particularly at the institutional level, were expected to be presented and discussed. It was our hope that when the participants discussed, "know-hows" of foreign student education at the institutional level, they always kept the basic question pertaining underlying philosophy of international exchange of education and culture in their mind.

Participants

Our final count of overseas participants was 39 people from 14 countries which included Australia, Austria, Canada, China (invited observer), Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America. The breakdown of 39 overseas participants are as the following: 24 national representatives, 3 guest speakers, 7 invited experts, 3 OECD/CERI representatives, and 2 overseas observers. The Japanese participants totaled 109 (23 invited participants plus 86 observers). The Japanese representatives consisted of 9 invited experts, 5 government officials (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture) and 9 Hiroshima University (RIHE) faculty members including the president of the university. The breakdown of Japanese observers are 40 institutional representatives from various universities (as observers), 6 Hiroshima University RIHE-affiliated professors (as observers), 30 RIHE-affiliated researchers from other universities and schools (as observers), and 10 independent observers from universities and other organizations. In grand total, 148 concerned people from various parts of the world gathered at the Hiroshima Century-City Hotel for the three-day long seminar.

Participants' enthusiastic collaboration in activities of the seminar was most impressive, as we will describe in various sections to follow. Between vigorous discussion sessions, participants enjoyed informal conversation during the tea break, lunch time, and reception. Many overseas participants mentioned that the dinner party on a cruising boat named "Ginga" (the Galaxy) in Hiroshima Bay on the second night was one of the most pleasant experiences during the seminar. A morning coffee-and-doughnuts and informal meeting with some representatives of international students at Hiroshima University in the third day morning also was reported as successful. The meeting was followed by a "field trip" to the Mitaki Buddhist temple garden, famous for its Japanese maples, and the Peace Memorial Park, the site of the world-famous atomic bomb dome. We hoped that providing those kind of activities would give participants some 'on hands' experience with Japanese culture. It was an extremely busy but really pleasant and impressive experience for both participants and hosts.

Presented Papers

As is shown in the program, the entire seminar consisted of six sessions altogether: (1) opening session, (2) panel discussion session, (3) working group session A, (4) working group session B, (5) field trip, and (6) closing session. The bulk of this volume is taken up by the written papers presented at sessions 1, 3, 4 and 6.

The papers presented at the first session included (a) a keynote address by Mr. Shigeto Kawano, Association of International Education, Japan and two keynote reports by Mr. Alan Wagner, OECD/CERI Secretariat and by Mr. Kazuhiro Ebuchi, the present editor, respectively. These three papers are all categorized as "Keynote Reports" in this volume.

Although the second session was primarily composed of oral presentations by six panelists, a synthesis paper of country reports by Mr. Kaoru Okamoto, OECD/CERI Secretariat, was presented before the panel discussion which covered all the country reports submitted to OECD. Included are reports from Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Switzerland, U.K., and U.S.A. This synthesis report will be found in the Section of "Synthesis Paper."

Four papers regarding institutional measures and programs for foreign students and five papers dealing with social and cultural adjustment of foreign students were presented during Working Group A and Working Group B respectively. The former included papers authored by five experts, namely, Mr. Seth Spaulding, University of Pittsburgh, Mr. Douglas Windham, State University of New York at Albany, Mr. Alan Wagner, OECD/CERI, Ms. Maureen Woodhall, University of London, and Mr. Klaus Schnitzer, Hochschul-Informations-System. All of these papers, dealing with fundamental issues of institutional policies and measures regarding international students in the American, English and (West) German context of higher education respectively, are included in the section of Working Papers (A).

The latter included five papers authored by six experts, namely, Ms. Asako Uehara, Hiroshima University, Mr. Joseph Hicks, Hiroshima University, Mr. Hans Schütze, OECD/CERI, Ms. Brigid Ballard, Australian National University, Mr. Michael A. Olivas, University of Houston and Mr. Philip Altbach, State University of New York at Buffalo. Four out of five papers presented at the Working Group B session, dealing with various aspects of institutional responses toward social and cultural adjustment problems of foreign students in the Japanese, European, Australian, and American context, are included in the section of Working Papers (B).

With only one exception, we were able to include all the papers presented at the seminar in this report. Some of the authors took the trouble of revising their papers for the present volume, for which we are very grateful.

Oral Reports and Discussions

In addition to the above written papers, we thought it worthwhile to include the records of oral presentations and discussion from the second and the final sessions for the reasons described below. The panel discussion in the first day afternoon consisted of six oral presentations and discussion. Six panelists, namely, Ms. Elinor Barber, Mr. David Buckingham, Mr. Albert Prevos, Mr. Yoshio Hara, Mr. Hans Schütze, and Mr. Fu-Zeng Yu, whom represented the U.S., Australia, France, Japan, OECD and the People's Republic of China respectively, were requested to give a five-minute speech, resulting in considerable response from the colleagues around the table. Since written papers were not requested and we were concerned that much important information might be lost, a summary paper of the oral presentations and the discussion based on a transcription of the taped records and editor's personal notes is included in this volume under the heading of "Summary of Discussion."

Based on nine working papers, we also had very fruitful discussions during the working group sessions on the second day, which constituted the main body of the entire seminar. Since the elaborately prepared working papers and the rapporteur's reports of each session describe and summarize the discussion very well, no additional comments on these sessions will be necessary. Presented papers can be found in the following sections of this volume under the heading of "Working Papers" and "Rapporteurs' Reports."

The final, closing session held on the afternoon of the third day was also another important general discussion period in which almost all participants around the table were very actively involved. The session started with two rapporteurs' reports by Mr. Seth Spaulding (Working Group A) and Mr. Yoshiya Abe (Working Group B) which were followed by a lively discussion. In this discussion the chairman invited some observers on the floor to speak for the first time and overseas participants willingly responded to them, through which many important suggestions related to improvement of education for foreign students were made. An editor's summary of the final discussion appears in the volume under the heading of "Summary of Discussion." In closing the final session, Mr. Douglas Windham made the general rapporteur's report which was an excellent synthesis of all presentations and discussion, having covered all the important points made during the entire seminar from the opening session to an hour-long discussion after the first two rapporteurs' reports in the final session. All rapporteurs' reports appear in the last section of this book under the heading of "Rapporteurs' Reports."

Appendix

The scope and issues paper released by the OECD/CERI Secretariat (Appendix 1) is also included in this volume for the readers' convenience. The general plans and outline of the seminar, discussion topics, provisional definitions of the key terms were provided in this paper. This paper was also used as a basic framework for organizing relevant data and information in the country reports. The statistical data in the Appendix 2 were compiled by the OECD/CERI Secretariat, being based on the data in UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks as well as the data submitted by some of the countries participating in this seminar.

PART I

PROGRAM AND LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

SEMINAR PROGRAM

Tuesday, November 8, 1988

Registration

Session 1: Opening Session

"Foreign Student Education and Internationalization of Higher Education"

Chair: Mr. Tetsuya Kobayashi, Kyoto University (JPN.)
Mr. Masao Seki, Hiroshima University (JPN.)

Welcome and Greetings
Mr. Jiro Sato, Deputy Director-General, Minister's Secretariat (MESC, JPN.)
Mr. Yutaka Okihara, President, Hiroshima University (JPN.)

Opening Address
"Policy Trends and Issues regarding Foreign Students in Japan"
Mr. Shigeto Kawano, Association of International Education, Japan (JPN.)

Keynote Addresses
"Foreign Students: A Leading Edge for Change"
Mr. Alan P. Wagner, OECD/CERI
"Foreign Students and Internationalization of the University: A View from Japanese Perspective"
Mr. Kazuhiro Ebuchi, Hiroshima University (JPN.)

Discussion

LUNCH

Session 2: Panel Discussion

Chair: Mr. Hans Schütze, OECD/CERI
Mr. Akira Arimoto, Hiroshima University (JPN.)

Synthesis of Country Reports
"Institutional Policies and Measures for Foreign Students in Selected

OECD Countries: Country Reports Summary"
Mr. Kaoru Okamoto, OECD/CERI

Panel Discussion
"Institutional Policies toward Foreign Students"
Panelists:
Ms. Elinor Barber, I.I.E. (U.S.A.)
Mr. David Buckingham, Dept. of Education (AUSTRALIA)
Mr. Yoshio Hara, Tokyo Institute of Technology (JPN.)
Mr. Albert Prevos, N.O.U.S. (FRANCE)
Mr. Hans Schütze, OECD

Tea Break
Discussion
End of Session
MESC Reception (18:00-19:30) At Hiroshima Century-City Hotel

Wednesday, November 9, 1988

Working Group Sessions

Working Group A :
"Specific Measures and Programs for Foreign Students"
Working Group B :
"Social and Cultural Adjustments by Foreign Students"

Session 3: Working Group A-1

Chair: Mr. G.T. Veenkamp, N.U.F.F.I.C. (NETHERLANDS)
Mr. Motohisa Kaneko, Hiroshima University (JPN.)

Papers: "International Students in Higher Education: Institutional Policy Issues"
Mr. Seth Spaulding, University of Pittsburgh (U.S.A.)

"Measures and Impacts of Foreign Student Participation in the United States Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Research Perspectives"
Mr. Douglas M. Windham, SUNY at Albany (U.S.A.)
Mr. Alan P. Wagner, OECD/CERI

Session 4: Working Group B-1

Chair: Mr. Brian Goodman, Ministry of Colleges and Universities (Ontario, CANADA)
Mr. Akira Hoshino, International Christian University (JPN.)

Papers: "Institutional Responses to Socio-Cultural Adjustment Problems of Foreign Students in Japan"
Ms. Asako Uehara and
Mr. Joseph Hicks, Hiroshima University (JPN.)
"Social and Cultural Adjustment of Foreign Students: Experience and Policies from Western European Countries"
Mr. Hans Schütze, OECD

LUNCH

Session 5: Working Group A-2

Chair: Mr. G.T. Veenkamp, N.U.F.F.I.C. (NETHERLANDS)
Mr. Kiyoshi Yamamoto, Association of Intern'l Education (JPN.)

Papers: "Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students"
Ms. Maureen Woodhall, University of London (U.K.)
"Specific Measures and Programs for Foreign Students: A View from the Sending Country"
Mr. Klaus Schnitzer, Hochschul-Informations-System (F.R.G.)

Session 6: Working Group B-2

Chair: Mr. Brian Goodman, Ministry of Colleges and Universities (Ontario, CANADA)
Mr. Toru Umakoshi, Nagoya University (JPN.)

Papers: "Social and Cultural Adjustment by Foreign Students: The Australian Experience"
Ms. Brigid Ballard, National University Committee (AUSTRALIA)
"The Changing Legal Status of Foreign Students in the United States: An Overview of Recent Problems"
Mr. Michael A. Olivas, University of Houston (U.S.A.)
"Foreign Student Adjustment: Issues and Perspectives"
Mr. Philip Altbach, SUNY at Buffalo (U.S.A.)

Dinner Sunset Cruising (Hosted by Hiroshima Univ.)

Thursday, November 10, 1988

Session 7: Field Trip

Discussion with Foreign Students
City Tour—Mitaki Garden and Peace Memorial Park
Lunch with Foreign Students
(Preparation for Rapporteurs' Reports)

Session 8: Closing Session

"General Discussion and Agenda for Future Research"
Chair: Mr. Tetsuya Kobayashi, Kyoto University (JPN.)
Mr. Kazuyuki Kitamura, Hiroshima University (JPN.)
Rapporteur's Report—Working Group A
Mr. Seth Spaulding, Univ. of Pittsburgh (U.S.A.)
Rapporteur's Report—Working Group B
Mr. Yoshiya Abe, National Center for Development of Multimedia Education (JPN.)
Tea Break
General Discussion
General Rapporteur's Report
Mr. Douglas M. Windham, SUNY at Albany (U.S.A.)
Conclusion

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

OVERSEAS PARTICIPANTS

National Representatives

Mr. Ken Back	Executive Director, The International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges *Australia*
Ms. Brigid Ballard	Student Counsellor(Academic), Australian National University, *Australia*
Mr. David Buckingham	First Assistant Secretary, International Division Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Australia*
Mr. Christian Brunner	Professor, Karl-Franzens-Universitat Graz, *Austria*
Mr. Leon Simar	Vice-Rector, University of Liege, *Belgium*
Mr. John Berry	Director, International Division Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, *Canada*
Mr. Brian Goodman	Assistant Deputy Minister, (Universities and Research Support), Ministry of Colleges and Universities, Ontario, *Canada*
Ms. Mary Jo Lynch	Programme Manager, Academic Relations Division, Department of External Affairs, *Canada*
Mr. Peter Uffe Meier	Head of Section, Directorate for Further and Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Research, *Denmark*
Mr. Hubert Braun	Deputy Director, Department of Science Research and Higher Education in Hamburg,*Federal Republic*

	of Germany
Ms. Ulrike Dolezal	Referentin, Dipl. -Pad, Federal Ministry of Education and Science, *Federal Republic of Germany*
Mr. Georg Neumann	Director, German Academic Exchange (DAAD) office in Tokyo, *Federal Republic of Germany*
Ms. Inkeri Aarnio	Senior Secretary for Cultural Affairs, Department for International Relations, Ministry of Education *Finland*
Mr. Seppo Naumanen	Director, The State Aid Center, *Finland*
Ms. Monique Rivier	Charge de Mission, Direction de la Cooperation Scientifique Ministere des Affaires Etrangeres *France*
Mr. Albert Prevos	Directeur, Centre National des Oeuvres Universitaires et Scolaires, *France*
Mr. Gerhardus T. Veenkamp	Director, Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation (NUFFIC), *The Netherlands*
Ms. Marianne Hildebrand	Deputy Head of Division, National Board of Universities and Colleges, *Sweden*
Mr. Thomas Lunden	Head of Department, The Swedish Institute, *Sweden*
Mr. Jean-Marie Rayroux	Counsellor for Industrial and Scientific Affairs, Swiss Embassy in Japan, *Switzerland*
Mr. Stewart Smith	Controller, Higher Education Division, The British Council, *United Kingdom*
Mr. Paul Shapiro	Senior Executive Assistant, United States Informa-

tion Agency, *United States of America*

Ms. Ann Helm

Program Director, International House, University of California at Berkeley, *United States of America*

Mr. Joseph A. Mestenhauser

Professor and Director, Office for Academic Affairs and International Education, University of Minnesota, *United States of America*

Guest Speakers

Mr. Seth Spaulding

Professor of International Education, University of Pittsburgh, *United States of America*

Mr. Douglas M. Windham

Professor, State University of New York at Albany, *United States of America*

Ms. Maureen Woodhall

Senior Lecturer, Institute of Education, University of London, *United Kingdom*

Invited Experts

Mr. Philip Altbach

Professor, State University of New York at Buffalo *United States of America*

Ms. Elinor G. Barber

Director of Research, Institute of International Education, *United States of America*

Ms. Hattie Jarmon

Education Specialist, Office of International Training, U.S. Agency for International Development *United States of America*

Mr. William W. McNeil

Executive Director, World University Service of Canada, *Canada*

Mr. Jan Myklebust

Office of the Registrar, University of Bergen *Norway*

Mr. Michael A. Olivas

Professor of Law, University of Houston, *United States of America*

Mr. Klaus Schnitzer

Deputy Head of Research Department Hochschul-Informations-System, *Federal Republic of Germany*

OECD

Mr. Alan P. Wagner

Principal Administrator, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI)

Mr. Kaoru Okamoto

Project Officer, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI)

Mr. Hans G. Schütze

Consultant, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI)

JAPANESE PARTICIPANTS

Invited Experts

Mr. Yoshiya Abe

Professor, National Center for Development of Multimedia Education

Mr. Yoshio Hara

Professor, Tokyo Institute of Technology

Mr. Akira Hoshino

Professor, International Christian University

Mr. Shigeto Kawano

Director General, Association of International Education, Japan

Mr. Tetsuya Kobayashi

Professor, Kyoto University

Mr. Hiroshi Magofuku

Executive Secretary, International Center, Keio University

Ms. Asako Uehara

Associate Professor, Hiroshima University

Mr. Toru Umakoshi

Associate Professor, Nagoya University

Mr. Kiyoshi Yamamoto

Representative Director, Association of International Education, Japan

Ministry of Education, Science and Culture — Japan

Mr. Jiro Sato

Deputy Director-General, Minister's Secretariat

Mr. Mitsuo Mimura

Director, Student Exchange Division, Science and International Affairs Bureau

Mr. Hideaki Saito

Director, Students Exchange Promotion Office, Science and International Affairs Bureau

Mr. Noriaki Kuroda

Senior Program Officer, International Affairs Planning Division, Science and International Affairs Bureau

Mr. Noriyuki Matsukawa

Unit Chief, Student Exchange Division, Science and International Affairs Bureau

Hiroshima University

Mr. Yutaka Okihara

President

Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE)

Mr. Masao Seki

Professor and Director

Mr. Kazuhiro Ebuchi

Professor

Mr. Kazuyuki Kitamura

Professor

Mr. Akira Arimoto

Professor

Mr. Motohisa Kaneko

Associate Professor

Mr. Joseph E. Hicks
Research Associate
Mr. Tsukasa Daizen
Research Associate
Mr. Akihiro Ito
Research Associate

OBSERVERS

Invited Overseas Observer
Mr. Fu-Zeng Yu
Director, Bureau of Foreign Affairs, State Education Commission, *People's Republic of China*

Overseas Observers
Mr. Willem Remmelink
Japan-Netherlands Institute

Institutional Representatives

Hiroshima University

RIHE Affiliated Researchers

Independent Observers

SECRETARIAT AT HIROSHIMA UNIVERSITY

Administration Bureau
Student Bureau
The University Library
Research Institute for Higher Education

PART II

PRESENTED PAPERS

Keynote Reports and Working Papers

1

POLICY TRENDS AND ISSUES REGARDING FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN*

Shigeto Kawano**

Introduction

As pointed out in the previous seminar held in the Netherlands in 1985, the international exchange of students in the world today has become so active that we can say we are now living in the age of "exploding inflow of foreign students." Under these circumstances, university people, government authorities and many other people in various sectors have been involved in earnest debates as to what should be done to cope with such a rapid increase in the flow of foreign students.

In many advanced countries various issues concerning foreign students have become big social problems. They have become major concerns for the governments as well as for individual institutions of higher education. In this context I place a high value on the present seminar which has been timely convened to follow the last seminar in the Netherlands. While facing many problems and difficulties about foreign students, the Japanese Government is planning to carry out positive policies with a view to accepting a hundred thousand foreign students by the beginning of the 21st century.

I hope that this seminar will provide a good opportunity for the adequate exchange of views among participants regarding how policy developments at the governmental level will affect foreign student affairs at the level of individual institutions. As I serve as the director of an organization carrying out foreign student programs in Japan, I should like to talk about major policy trends and some issues concerning foreign students in Japan. I shall be happy if my presentation proves to be of any help for the discussions in this seminar.

Recent Development of Foreign Student Policies in Japan

Regarding the exchange of students, Japan has long been a sending country since its emergence as a modern state in the late 19th century. In retrospect, in the late 19th century when Japan began to move toward a modern state, the Government aimed to import various modern products from advanced countries in Europe and America in all fields including artistic culture, modern thought, technologies, medicine and law. With this aim, the Government created a number of universities, to which it invited a lot of excellent scholars from these countries to ask them to engage in teaching and research. At the same time the Government sent a lot of talented young people to these countries to have them acquire academic knowledge in a wide range of disciplines.

---

* Paper presented as a keynote address.

** Director General, Association of International Education, Japan.

After World War II, when Japan was forced to restart as a modern nation from a state of devastation due to the lost war, a great many Japanese students were sent to the United States under GARIOA, Fulbright and other programs. And many other students were sent to Europe with scholarships provided by the governments of Great Britain, France, West Germany and other European countries. It is not too much to say that these students became a driving force to enable Japan to modernize itself and to develop from a country impoverished due to World War II into the second largest economic power among free nations.

Although Japan has long been a sending country with regard to the exchange of students, it has now adopted a positive policy for accepting a greater number of foreign students. This policy was led by a report entitled "Recommendations about Foreign Student Policy for the 21st Century" which was presented in 1983 by an ad hoc council organized with the instruction of the then Prime Minister Mr. Nakasone. The report recommended that the number of foreign students studying at Japanese universities and other institutions be increased to approximately a hundred thousand by the beginning of the 21st century and that to this end the government carry out positive measures including the improvement of university structures and environment for accepting foreign students, the improvement of housing accommodations for these students, and the expansion of scholarships for them.

It can be said that behind these recommendations was a recognition that international exchange in education, particularly the exchange of students at the higher education level, is of great significance in helping improve the level of education and research both in Japan and in foreign countries, in developing and promoting international understanding and cooperation, and in assisting developing countries with the development of their human resources.

Rationales for Accepting Foreign Students in Japan

Here, may I talk about my observation of the backgrounds for the government policy for receiving a greater number of foreign students in Japan? I should like to talk about this topic, because I believe it is meaningful to make clear positive rationales for accepting more foreign students, since, as pointed out in the seminar in the Netherlands, various difficulties have been exposed concerning the acceptance of foreign students, and consequently proper rationales justifying the acceptance of more foreign students have been asked for.

The first rationale for the acceptance of foreign students in Japan lies in the expected improvement of the level of education and research at Japanese universities. Needless to say, the primary raison d'etre of universities rests with the pursuit and teaching of universal knowledge and values. Such knowledge and values are not merely based on our own national culture. We should pursue universal knowledge and values common to mankind without national boundaries. It may not be too much to say that a driving force for the progress of a university lies in the diversity of the teachers and students therein. Especially, in our society where people have had little experience of living with other people from other cultures, the acceptance of foreign students has greatly contributed to activating the educational and research activities of our universities. As many university people have experienced, the presence of foreign students with a way of thinking different from our own has given a great stimulus not only to Japanese students but also to Japanese teachers.

The second rationale for the acceptance of foreign students concerns the promotion of international understanding between Japanese and foreign peoples and the development of friendly relations based on mutual trust between them.

The different nations throughout the world have become more and more interdependent and have rapidly been integrated with each other in political, economic, social, cultural and all other aspects. Meanwhile, however, we find there are growing conflicts among different interests and the growing lack of common understanding not only with regard to economic issues but also with regard to a wide range of social issues.

In this context, it is quite important for us to deal persistently with specific problems arising in our daily life, and thus to contribute to the harmonious development of the international community. It would be quite difficult, however, to achieve the true solution of these problems unless our efforts are based on mutual understanding and friendship among different peoples concerned.

In order to achieve this objective, it is important that different peoples come into free and daily contact with each other and learn about each other, so as to increase the understanding of each other and to respect each other's culture, society and values. I believe that the acceptance of foreign students from different countries provides the best opportunity to enable these students to get a straightforward insight into the real state of Japan and its people, through their learning and research activities as well as through their daily life. Therefore the acceptance of foreign students has a great role to play in providing a basis for developing our friendly relations with other nations.

The third rationale concerns Japan's cooperation with developing countries in the development of their human resources.

Developing countries need various categories of economic and technical assistance from advanced countries so that they may achieve their own economic and social development. The categories of assistance and technology which developing countries require vary greatly from country to country according to the specific conditions of each country. Any assistance, however, is merely complementary to the self-help efforts of these countries. The success of the development of a country depends on its people themselves. Keeping this in mind, advanced countries should strengthen their cooperation with developing countries not only in financial or material aspects but also in the development of manpower needed for their economic and social development. Such cooperation includes assistance in the dissemination of education and the training of competent experts in various fields. Therefore, I believe that it is very significant for educational and research institutions in advanced countries to open their doors as widely as possible to competent applicants from developing countries and thus to cooperate with these countries in the training of qualified manpower.

In view of the importance of the acceptance of foreign students, I fully support the basic direction of the positive policy of our Government for accepting a greater number of foreign students in Japan.

The Current State of Foreign Students in Japan

May I turn to the present situation about the acceptance of foreign students in Japan?

The total number of foreign students in Japan was 22, 154 as of 1st May 1987. The number seems to have increased to more than 25,000 by 1st May this year. The greater majority of foreign students in Japan are those from Asian countries. As of 1st May last year, 88.4% of total foreign students were from Asia, 4.5% from North America and 2.6% from Europe. Talking about the past trend, the total number of foreign students was 10,428 in 1983 when the Japanese Government began to develop its positive policy for drastically increasing the number of foreign students. By 1987, four years later, the number had increased to 22,154, that is, twice the number in 1983. Such a past trend indicates that during recent years there has been a very rapid growth of the inflow of foreign students to Japan.

Now, I will talk about the development of the Government's foreign student policy which has given a great impact to this rapid increase in the number of foreign students. First, as regards the expansion of the Japanese Government Scholarship Program, the Government has envisaged to increase the number of Government Scholarship students to 10,000 by the beginning of the 21st century under the plan for increasing the total number of foreign students to 100,000. In accordance with this plan, the Government has been striving to ensure a progressive increase in the number of Government Scholarships, expecting that this increase will lead to an increase in the number of "private students" who are provided with no Japanese Government Scholarship. In addition, the Government has been endeavoring to diversify the categories of Government Scholarships so as to make them more adapted to the needs of students from developing countries.

Today, national universities accommodate 40% of all foreign students, and 76% of post-graduate foreign students. Our Government has helped national universities improve their educational and environmental conditions for foreign students enrolled therein by increasing the number of teachers in charge of Japanese language teaching and specialized teaching of foreign students, and by constructing more hostels for these students. With regard to private universities accommodating 60% of all foreign students, the Government has provided special financial subsidies to these universities for their expenditures incurred for the education and research supervision of foreign students. These subsidies are made to individual institutions on the basis of the number of foreign students accommodated in each institution.

Approximately 80% of all foreign students pursuing studies in Japan are "private students" who are granted no Japanese Government Scholarship, and these students constitute the main portion of the recent increase in the number of foreign students in Japan. In order to help ensure better living conditions for these students, the Government has made a variety of special measures favorable to them. Such measures include: giving them financial assistance for medical care; providing Honors Scholarships for excellent private students with financial difficulties; giving tax exemption benefits to private foundations providing scholarships for foreign students; and giving permission to foreign students to engage in part-time jobs within certain limited hours.

In spite of its strict financial conditions, the Japanese Government has been carrying out such various measures as I have mentioned, with a view to receiving a greater number of foreign students in the future. It remains, however, to be a fact that there are a great many problems to be solved, if we are to envisage receiving 100,000 foreign students at the beginning of the 21st century. Further efforts are required to solve these problems. For example, we must improve the educational and living conditions of foreign students so that study in Japan may become truly worthwhile experience for young foreign students who have enthusiasm for learning. Like some universities in Europe and America, some Japanese universities have begun to show negative attitude towards receiving a greater number of foreign students. We must solve this problem.

Major Issues Regarding Foreign Students in Japan

Now I should like to talk about some of the major issues regarding foreign students which I have in mind for the future toward the 21st century.

The first issue is the readiness of foreign students for study in Japan. As I have mentioned, 80% of all foreign students in Japan are "private students." Soon after their arrival in Japan, many of these students enter a Japanese language school and learn Japanese for one year to one and a half year, depending on the needs of individuals, and then take the entrance examination for a university. During this period their social status is very unstable. In my opinion this fact indicates that foreign students wishing to study in Japan may have a greater handicap than students wishing to study in Europe or America. If all foreign students with different backgrounds are to have common readiness for study in Japan, and if they are to make their own study and life in Japan easier and more profitable, it is essential for them master the Japanese language beforehand. For various reasons, however, we have made little effort to facilitate the learning of people overseas about Japanese culture and technology. Until recently little effort had been made to encourage people overseas to study the Japanese language. As a result it has become a normal practice for foreign students to begin to study Japanese after their arrival in Japan. In contrast, it is a normal practice for students wishing to study in

Europe and America to learn English, French or German beforehand. In order to accept a greater number of foreign students in the coming years, we are required, as a prerequisite, to strive to provide foreign students with much more opportunities for learning Japanese in their home countries before coming to Japan.

In addition, we should help develop a mechanism to enable foreign students to decide, in their home country, on the Japanese institution to enter. It is my opinion that, in order to enable foreign students to make their study in Japan successful, it is necessary to discontinue the present usual practice that, after their arrival in Japan, students begin to learn Japanese and then determine the university to enter. They should determine their university before coming to Japan. To this end, I think that the Japanese side should greatly expand the dissemination of information about education in Japan and about the characteristics of educational and research programs of individual Japanese universities. Further, some forms of entrance examination should be administered in students' home countries so that they may determine their Japanese university on the basis of their results of the examination.

The second issue is the improvement of the present conditions of teaching and learning at individual universities. As I have mentioned, the total number of foreign students studying in Japan was 22,154 as of May 1987. About 44% of this total were enrolled in undergraduate courses, 36% in graduate courses, and 20% in professional training colleges or other institutions. The ratio of foreign students to Japanese ones enrolled in graduate courses was 10 to 1 for national universities.

The number of foreign students enrolled in graduate courses are still much smaller in Japan than in many other OECD countries including the United States, France and West Germany. However, like in many of these countries, some graduate schools in Japan have already begun to suffer from insufficient budgets, facilities and equipment, as well as lack of the adequate number of teachers required for the education of these students. It can be stated that this fact is partly because foreign students tend to be concentrated into a small number of graduate schools, and partly because graduate schools in Japan have no independent staff, facilities of equipment of their own. Historically, graduate schools in Japan have been set up as units connected with particular undergraduate departments. As a result, teaching staff of graduate schools are in general those of the related undergraduate departments, and the physical facilities and equipment they use are those for these undergraduate departments. The plan for accepting 100,000 foreign students by the 21st century is based on the assumption that graduate schools, public and private, should receive 30,000 students in total. If it is the case, I think that specific measures should be taken to improve the existing conditions of our graduate schools, while keeping in mind what organizational patterns are appropriate for graduate schools in general.

The university curriculum is another subject to be considered. Among basic issues on the teaching of foreign students are to what extent universities should give special consideration to foreign students with regard to the curriculum they should pursue, and to what extent foreign students should adapt themselves to the existing university curriculum organized for Japanese students. In Japanese universities, hardly any active efforts have been made to develop special curricula for foreign students or to improve teaching methods for them. Considering that it is very difficult for foreign students to master Japanese, some graduate schools have set up special courses for foreign students where all or part of classroom lessons are given in English. But such graduate schools still remain to be very few. I think that in the coming years graduate schools should more actively endeavor to introduce various innovations in the curriculum, giving due consideration to the needs of foreign students.

The doctor's degree in Japan is also another subject which I have to mention regarding graduate school programs in this country. Legally the doctor's degree in Japan is to be granted to those who have completed a doctorate course at a graduate school and have acquired such high-level research capabilities, based on profound academic knowledge, as are required for independent research activities in a specific major field of study. As a matter of fact, however, in the fields of the humanities and social sciences in particular, doctor's degrees are awarded to only a very small proportion of those students who have completed a doctorate course. The situation is quite the same both for Japanese and foreign students. Behind this situation is these facts. Firstly, before World War II there was prevalent in Japan an idea that the doctor's degree should be awarded only to successful and celebrated scholars. This old idea still remains to be living in the minds of many university people today. Secondly, Japanese employers have not placed much value on the doctor's degree as a criterion for hiring or promoting their employees. This trend has much to do with the old idea about the doctor's degree. These circumstances must be definitely amended, as I am afraid that the continuance of the present situation regarding the doctor's degree would impede the aspiration of foreign students for study in Japan, and would even cause an obstacle for Japanese students in playing an active part in the international community.

The third issue is how to ensure proper living conditions for foreign students. At present 80% of foreign students are "private students." About 93% of these students are from developing countries. They are now living under strict economic conditions partly due to the higher value of yen in recent years. A growing number of students, therefore, are engaged in some form of part-time job. With this in view, an increasing number of local governments are providing scholarships for foreign students, and a number of private foundations have been created to provide scholarships for these students. The Government also is considering the substantial expansion of the existing Honors Scholarship Program for "private students" with a view to increasing governmental assistance to them. I consider that financial assistance to them is indispensable if their study in Japan is to be meaningful.

There is another problem on housing accommodations for foreign students. Since student hostels at universities have not adequately developed in Japan, at present 75% of foreign students are living in private boarding houses and apartments. As you may know, however, housing conditions in Japan are very poor specially in larger cities where most of universities are located, so it is far from easy for foreign students to find out suitable private boarding houses or apartments. In these circumstances, some industrial firms have recently begun to open some rooms in the dormitories for their employees to foreign students, and some local governments have begun to build foreign student hostels. It is my view that, while these endeavors by private industries and local governments should be increased, the Government itself also should carry out active measures for securing housing accommodations for foreign students through various means.

Conclusion

As I have mentioned, during recent years private industries and local governments have become more active in carrying out activities for supporting foreign students. As you may have noticed from my explanation, the Government has so far played the key role in promoting policies for accepting more foreign students. In the years ahead, however, it will be more important that appropriate mechanisms be developed at the community level through joint efforts by universities, local governments, business associations and other private organizations, so that foreign students may be warmly received as members of the host community.

Now I should like to conclude my speech. I shall be very happy if my presentation proves to be of any help for the discussions in this seminar. Thank you very much.

2

FOREIGN STUDENTS: A LEADING EDGE FOR CHANGE*

OECD/CERI Secretariat

Introduction

To describe foreign students as a stimulus or means of change appears, on the surface, to exaggerate their importance. Although the proportions vary markedly among countries and institutions, foreign students account for an estimated 3.5 percent of total student enrollments within the OECD. In Switzerland and Belgium, foreign students account for about one-fifth of enrollments in higher education. Among the countries receiving large numbers in absolute terms, foreign students represent about one-eighth of the total in France, about one-twentieth of the total in Germany and in the United Kingdom, and about three percent of the total in the United States. In Japan, foreign students in higher education account for less than one percent of the total.

Systems or institutions of higher education, of course, must respond in some way to the interests and needs of even a small number of foreign students. Such students are often different in background, academic preparation, first language, lifestyle and legal standing from domestic students. The differences may require changes ranging from modifications in the contents and methods of instruction to the provision of specialised academic advisement as well as counseling to ease social and cultural adjustments.

Yet, there are several, increasingly important reasons for regarding foreign students as a powerful, more profound source of change in higher education and in countries. Within institutions of higher education, the impact of foreign students is now going beyond a response to narrow concerns about accommodating the particular needs and interests of foreign students to the initiation of institution-wide efforts to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of academic and research programmes. From a second perspective, that of higher education as a whole, foreign students represent a source of change principally in the way those in higher education see themselves and their institutions. Importantly, foreign students introduce or reveal the often implicit competition among systems or institutions of higher education. At a third level, that of the host country, foreign students are affecting the way governments see higher education's missions and potential roles.

---

* Paper presented as a keynote report.

Changes at each level can not be entirely attributed to the flow of foreign students. But, foreign students certainly contribute as a leading edge for change, perhaps more important for what they represent than for their absolute numbers and composition.

A Leading Edge for Change within Institutions

For many years, systems or institutions of higher education in OECD countries treated foreign students as they did domestic students. Foreign students with appropriate credentials were admitted for study and were expected to follow the same courses and to meet the same standards as domestic students. Although special relationships may have been established between institutions in certain host and sending countries to ensure a set number of places or to facilitate the evaluation of student preparation, host institutions of higher education made no special provision for students from other countries. Not surprisingly, the foreign student flows remained limited in size and quite predictable in composition. Countries with language or historical ties were more likely to be represented by students in the host country. Moreover, the predominant flows were among relatively developed countries; students from the developing world were few in number. This pattern continues, in part, today.

Much more recently, a second flow of foreign students has emerged. Increasing absolute and relative numbers of students from rapidly developing countries of the world are enrolling in institutions of higher education in member countries of the OECD. Initially, there was a very limited response to this flow. However, certainly in this decade, systems and institutions of higher education have become concerned with the problems associated with the enrollment of foreign students at all levels. The subject of reviews and debate in virtually every host country, the problems serve as the basis for the international seminar in Hiroshima. The seminar has been convened to provide for an exchange of views and detailed practical experiences on how institutions of higher education can respond to the specific academic interests and social and cultural adjustment needs of foreign students.

The modification of programmes, development of new courses, and provision of services certainly represent "changes" within institutions brought about by the presence of foreign students. Yet, too often these responses are viewed narrowly. Special programmes or new arrangements for advisement and counseling potentially represent the first steps toward more widespread changes within institutions in these areas. Because they bring to the classroom different experiences and perspectives, foreign students "force us to look at how we teach . . . (they) require that you take some time to think out why you are doing things and how you are doing them" (Fenwick 1987). Such reflection would be desirable for the improvement of teaching for *all* students, domestic and foreign. This single example has a broader implication. If, as Elinor Barber of the Institute of International Education has argued, the problems commonly associated with foreign students find parallels in issues and problems for all students, might not the responses developed for foreign students provide some insights into how institutions could respond to problems reaching across the entire institution?

The question becomes increasingly relevant as the face of the university itself changes. With the trend toward mass higher education and growing numbers of immigrant and ethnic minorities in nearly every OECD member country, the differences between domestic and foreign students in backgrounds, attitudes, perspectives, and capacities will become increasingly difficult to discern. In this sense, too, responses to the "special" circumstances of foreign students represent a leading edge for changes in the way institutions of higher education will provide instruction in the years to come.[1] Similarly, different experiences and new perspectives which foreign students bring to the laboratory or research seminar might also be seen as a way to enrich the research programmes underway in host country institutions.[2] The responses to problems raised by foreign students do not always find useful and appropriate applications throughout an institution of higher education. Indeed, the true opportunity afforded by the presence of foreign students is the opportunity to learn about ways to evaluate alternative approaches in instruction and research activities and to manage internal change.

Through attempts to respond to the interests and needs of foreign students, administration and faculty can explore the implications of such changes for the substance and quality of academic and research programmes. The examination need not lead to changes in regular degree programmes which specifically respond to the expressed interests of foreign students. Indeed, it is not at all clear that foreign students (or their sponsors) seek such changes.[3]

Rather, the review would enable the staff to "take some time to think about why (they) are doing things and how (they) are doing them."

The institutional responses to the interests and needs of foreign students also provides useful experiences on how changes in instructional and research programmes can be successfully implemented. Ultimately, it is the individual faculty member who makes changes in the contents and methods in academic programmes or takes on new approaches or topics in research. Individual decisions to make such changes depend on an array of internal incentives, including how the changes will contribute to the success of his or her own work or add to the workload. As Stephen Hoenack and his colleagues have shown, the sizes of, and linkages among, the impacts of foreign students on the work of individual faculty members are conceptually and empirically complex matters.[4] However, two clear implications emerge. First, the marginal "costs" (and benefits) of foreign students on individual faculty members may differ substantially from the marginal costs (and benefits) of such students as viewed by administrators. Second, as more broadly observed by Douglas Windham, institutional planners never directly determine the outcomes of programmes intended to meet the needs and interests of foreign students. Rather, they set into action certain forces which they hope will result in the desired outcomes.

The presence of foreign students enables—even forces—institutions of higher education to explore these issues. In several systems or institutions of higher education, additional resources have been allocated to departments and/or faculty working with larger numbers of foreign students.[5] The resources serve to reduce the disincentives to respond directly to the needs and interests of foreign students.

Importantly, the issues raised and approaches adopted in institutional responses to the needs and interests of foreign students apply more widely. Should particular approaches for the evaluation and management of responses to foreign students prove to be successful, the strategies could be applied to enable appropriate and desirable changes in other programmes within the university.

A Leading Edge for Change in Higher Education

As the trend toward mass higher education has changed the university's face, other developments outside higher education have begun to shape the way higher education sees itself. Arguably, the developments with the most profound implications for the future of higher education are those which have introduced and strengthened the role of external incentives. Foreign student enrollments represent a leading edge of an increasingly accepted view that higher education operates in a "marketplace" of instructional opportunities and knowledge.

1) Competition for Students

Systems of institutions of higher education that were once accustomed to filling their "quotas" of foreign students now find themselves competing with other systems or institutions for these students.[6]

The reasons are partly financial. In some countries, systems or institutions of higher education are more actively recruiting foreign students because they bring resources which are necessary to make up for relatively slow growth in revenues from governments, domestic students and their families, and private third-party donors.

There are programmatic reasons for a new, or stronger, competition for foreign students as well. On the one hand, foreign students or their sponsors have become much more selective in choosing among countries and institutions. Officials in sending countries responsible for the placement of students have become much more inclined to place their students in several countries, in part to allow the benefits unique to study and research in each host country to be realised. Sending country authorities are also more likely to look into the contents and methods of available programmes across possible host countries, choosing those which best meet the objectives of the country and capacities of the students. This latter rationale also applies at the individual student level to the very substantial flow of privately-financed foreign students.

From higher education's perspective, systems and institutions in the host countries increasingly see foreign students as a means to sustain or improve academic programmes. In some engineering and science programmes, foreign students account for up to 70 percent of the post graduate enrollment.[7] In other institutions, foreign students are viewed quite simply as a source of expertise and knowledge, necessary for an appropriate environment for learning at the tertiary level and for more informed, improved research.[8] Those systems or institutions of higher education seeking to broaden the distribution of geographic origins of their foreign student enrollments implicitly take this view.

Whether due to increased sensitivity to financial and programmatic differences by foreign students (or their governments or sponsors) or growing demands by systems or institutions to finance current operations, sustain programmes, or improve the "quality" by bringing in perspectives and expertise from different countries, the competition for foreign students is growing. Even systems or institutions of higher education which do not see themselves as competing for foreign students are participating in this market by providing additional financial support and special programmes and measures aimed at these students.

The principal implication of the developing market for foreign students is that it offers a new way for systems or institutions of higher education to think about the recruitment and enrollment of all students. Indeed, the competition for foreign students differs only in detail from the implicit competition for other categories of students.

Two examples may help to make the point. In some countries, places in certain "low demand" programmes fill up less quickly than in other "high demand" programmes, and the "low demand" fields tend to be less able to attract students with particular background characteristics and aptitudes (e.g., teacher training programmes). In this case, measures developed in response to growing competition for foreign students could be seen as part of a strategy to encourage enrollments in these fields and particularly from target groups. The marketplace view is stronger in a growing, and often new, area for institutions of higher education: non-traditional programmes serving adults. Institutions in some centralised as well as decentralised systems have been given increased autonomy to develop and expand such programmes and to retain at least a portion of the revenues from the activity. Approaches used to respond to the competition for foreign students would find immediate parallels in attempts by institutions of higher education to attract adults.

2) Competition for Faculty

The view of foreign students as an important source of expertise, perspectives, and knowledge can easily be extended to the professoriate. In some countries, the value of a faculty embodying the full range of international perspectives and and international academic training is expressed quite explicitly. In other systems or institutions of higher education, the international demand for trained academic talent derives from an expressed desire to build outstanding academic and research programmes around the best trained scholars regardless of their nationalities. Finally, many institutions are finding it increasingly difficult to fill academic posts in certain "high-demand" fields in which the supply of doctorates (particularly those born and trained in the country) is small relative to demands from higher education, government, and the private sector.

The implication is that systems and institutions of higher education will be devoting considerable attention to the recruitment of and competition for academic talent, and that these efforts will take on an enlarged international dimension. The growing proportions of doctorates received by nationals from countries outside the OECD implies that higher education must increasingly respond to the particular interests and needs of this segment of the pool if sufficient numbers are to be attracted to universities (as opposed to the private sector within OECD member countries or posts in their home countries). The very important political issue of how to respond to potential losses to developing countries from the migration of highly trained manpower may affect the extent, but not the thrust, of the trend.

Further, competition for leading professors among OECD member countries is already taking place.[9] Several instances have been highly publicised. While movements such as these remain relatively few in number, the competition might be expected to increase as systems and institutions of higher education seek to establish pre-eminent programmes in particular fields. Systems or institutions wishing to compete in this market will need to understand how to best meet the needs and interests of a professoriate pool increasingly diverse in geographic origin and in academic perspective. Responses to the competition for foreign students can serve as a leading edge for changes in institutional policies and practices in this area.

3) Competition for Support

If there is an international "marketplace" for students and professors, then the leading edge for change represented by foreign students could be extended to include a "market" for higher education's "output": new knowledge. The scale of an international market to gain access to the knowledge is limited at present. But, corporations and governments already invest, directly or indirectly, in the research activities of higher education outside of their own countries.[10] Expanded trade and economic agreements between countries and the growing number of collaborative industry-university efforts widen the possibilities for the development of such a market.

A Leading Edge for Change in Government Policy

Although nominally autonomous, systems and institutions of higher education in OECD member countries are affected by broader government policies and programmes. Traditionally, the impacts have been indirect and generally favorable. Governments have enabled higher education to define the courses to be offered (and their contents and methods) and to set the criteria for admission, the assessment of student performance, and faculty recruitment and promotion. Governments have also provided most of the resources necessary to support higher education's operations under terms which have afforded considerable discretion to the institutions.

Recently, governments have taken a more active interest in higher education as an instrument for serving broader national policy objectives. The interest is not new, but the scope of government initiatives in the 1980's suggests that systems and institutions of higher education may find themselves responding in greater measure than before to these broader policy objectives.

Foreign students represent a leading edge for the introduction and expansion of government interests into the organisation and missions of higher education. In one sense, foreign students have always been an instrument of broader national policies. Bilateral agreements on student flows between countries have usually served foreign policy interests and have been developed (sometimes financed) outside of higher education.[11] Institutions did little more than respond to the composition of student flows resulting from these agreements.

In another sense, foreign students have come to be viewed as a more powerful instrument for government policy to change institutions of higher education and to address broader international policy objectives.

Governments in several member countries have used their policies toward foreign students to introduce new approaches to financing higher education and new incentives into institutions. In Australia and in the United Kingdom, the recent imposition of fees for foreign students has foreshadowed attempts to introduce significant shifts in the methods and sources of finance for higher education.

Government efforts to use foreign student flows as an instrument of broader economic development policies are perhaps of even greater importance. Estimates marshalled from several countries suggest that foreign students provide financial benefits to the country or region in which they enroll.[12] Once graduated, foreign students provide what Robin Marris has described as a "commercial" benefit when they choose to purchase more from host country enterprises (including colleges and universities) than would otherwise have been the case.[13]

The view of higher education as an instrument for economic development in the host country potentially introduces new issues for systems and institutions of higher education. To take one such issue: programmes offered in more widely used international languages may make it easier to attract students from other countries and to encourage the development of facility in second languages among domestic students. While both might be seen as useful in the promotion of greater immediate and long run financial gains for the host country, the programmes raise important issues for institutions of higher education (equivalence of contents with regular programmes; effectiveness in enabling students to acquire skills and knowledge).

At a grander level, the flow of foreign students may also represent a leading edge for change in government views about the flow of highly qualified manpower. According to some analyses, a restructuring of production possibilities brought about by new and improving technologies and growing international competition in trade will magnify the importance of highly trained and creative manpower for the economies of the developed world.[14] Such manpower has always been in demand and it has proven to be highly mobile among enterprises and among countries. What may be new is the scale of the demand and the potential for government support of flows of highly trained manpower, "brain drain" issues notwithstanding.

Foreign students represent a leading edge for change in government policies in this area. By supporting the enrollment of foreign students in higher education, governments encourage the development of an appreciation for and understanding of the international dimensions of perspectives, backgrounds, and talents. At another level, institutional responses to foreign students offer some insights to enterprises or governments seeking to recruit highly trained manpower from all over the world.

Concluding Thoughts

As the foregoing suggests, the ways in which the flow of foreign students represent a leading edge for change extend quite broadly. In a number of areas, problems and issues associated with the flow of foreign students might be better regarded as a "window" through which the micro operations of individual universities and colleges are revealed, as a "looking glass" through which higher education can see itself in a different way, and a "crystal ball" in which higher education's emerging roles can be anticipated.

These perspectives provide a useful frame for examining the policies, measures, and programmes developed to respond to the specific needs and interests of foreign students. They imply that appropriate and effective institutional responses must take into account tensions within and outside of higher education:

- what balance should be achieved between responding separately to the specific needs and interests of foreign students and integrating their needs and interests into regular programmes and services?
- what is the balance between the institutional interests in maintaining an internationally diverse student body and the interests of individual faculty members?
- what is the balance between broader government interests and the traditional instructional and research missions of higher education?

Finally, it is the decisions of many individuals—administrators, faculty, domestic students, and foreign students as well as officials in host and sending country governments and personnel in sponsoring agencies–which determine the outcomes of initiatives aimed at responding to the needs and interests of foreign students. An understanding of the balance of perspectives and incentives among all the stakeholders will provide the basis for developing improved programmes and services for all students, foreign and domestic.

Notes

1. There is very little clear evidence that changes of this type have been broadly integrated into programmes within institutions of higher education. The research of the International Institute of Education into the impact of foreign students in engineering found little indication that contents of courses had been changed to reflect the national composition of classes.

2. The country reports prepared for this seminar provide support for this view. It is said that "academic mobility" is necessary for the development of the young scholar in Swiss higher education; such mobility is afforded by the presence of foreign students. The Dutch report from Wageningen Agricultural University makes a similar point, but goes on to say that foreign students "often have fresh new ways of approaching problems and finding original solutions."

3. For example, the Government of Indonesia deliberately places postgraduates into regular degree programmes because it sees value in having Indonesian students exposed to the same contents, methods, and expectations as domestic students in the host country. Indonesian officials responsible for the placement and monitoring of students do seek programmes, however, in which there is sufficient flexibility to permit the student to devote some attention to the development of skills and acquisition of knowledge appropriate to the

circumstances in Indonesia.

4. In discussing the problems confronted by foreign students, Philip Altbach has noted the need to understand the "micro-cultures" of the university. For the argument developed here, the inherent barriers to change within these micro-cultures need to be understood if they are to be overcome.

5. For example, at Wageningen Agricultural University in the Netherlands, teaching foreign students is considered to take 30 percent more time, and departments are compensated accordingly. In the United Kingdom, as of 1985, about one-half of the universities had introduced "internal incentive schemes to encourage and reward departments for the recruitment of overseas fee paying students" (Williams, Woodhall, and O'Brien 1986).

6. The evidence on this point is anecdotal and suggestive. When universities in the United Kingdom imposed tuition fees on overseas students, enrollments dropped. At the time, a Brazilian official involved in the placement and monitoring of students from his country remarked that, owing to the imposition of fees, Brazil would have consider placing its students elsewhere. In the United States, forecasts of 1986-87 foreign student enrollments made as recently as 1983 overestimated the actual number by more than 30 percent (Barber 1985). While exchange rate movements, debt levels in developing countries, oil prices, and political developments certainly affected foreign student flows, at least part of the shortfall in the United States might be attributed to the increasing competition for foreign students among host countries.

7. The country reports prepared for the seminar are quite revealing on this development. The Canadian report notes that foreign students respond, in part, to the " . . . continued overall decline" in domestic enrollments. In the United Kingdom, "the main pragmatic reason we want overseas students is that we can't obtain enough British ones" (Fenwick 1987).

8. This point is stressed in the Swiss and Dutch submissions to the seminar.

9. The international migration of faculty is not new. More than two centuries ago, Harvard University recruited faculty from universities in Europe. The scale of the competition may, however, be increasing. Michael Sovern, President of Columbia University in the United State, asserts: "We've entered an era of free-agency."

10. In the United States, institutions are now required to report on foreign investment in research projects. Foreign companies finance research at U.S. colleges and universities in return for a share of royalties on any invention or for marketing rights.

11. The dimensions of the foreign policy aspect of foreign student flows have not been well-documented, in part because foreign policy interests are directly or indirectly advanced by several government ministries or departments. In 1983, countries sending students to study in Australia received an estimated $69 million to $115 million in "foreign aid" in the form of implicit subsidies for instruction and student maintenance (Throsby 1985). In the United States, the U.S. Agency for International Development alone provides an estimated $120-140 million each year toward the support of foreign students in U.S. colleges and universities. The latter figure understates the full level of public support for foreign students in the U.S. both because it does not include funds provided from other federal and state sources and because it does not take into account implicit subsidies of academic programmes in which marginal costs exceed fees. Further, neither the Australian nor the U.S. figures take into consideration potential opportunity costs when, for example, foreign students replace domestic students in certain programmes or when expansion of programmes are foregone to sustain those serving foreign students.

12. In Canada, foreign students are said to generate $9,000 to $10,000 per student per year in additional income, against incremental costs of $5,000 to $6,000. According to research commissioned in the United States by the Institute of International Education, foreign students generate more than $11,000 in additional regional income, a figure about twice the average marginal cost of instruction in higher education. Student grants or fellowships in excess of fees would, of course, narrow the difference.

13. In the United Kingdom and Australia, this aspect surfaced in the discussions surrounding the imposition of full fees for foreign students. Opponents to cuts in subsidies for foreign students argued that "commercial" benefits exceed the subsidised marginal costs of instruction plus public funded stipends for student maintenance. In the United States, both Florida and Texas have used the "commercial" benefits rationale to justify new schemes which provide grants to attract students from countries in the Caribbean region.

14. The implications of this view for the organisation of work, required levels of skills and their rates of obsolescence, and the demand for initial and recurrent education and training have been explored by the OECD and others.

3

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE UNIVERSITY: A VIEW FROM JAPANESE PERSPECTIVE*

Kazuhiro Ebuchi**

Introduction

We are faced with a tremendous increase of foreign students in the contemporary world, and this rapid growth has been pushing governments in every host country towards more serious concern with establishing foreign student policies. Japan is no exception to this. The increase of governmental concern with international education and the promotion of concrete policies to cope with the various needs of foreign students are in turn affecting the existing system of individual institutions in various ways.[1]* While the number of foreign students enrolled in Japan is still very small in comparison with some other OECD member countries having a considerably longer history of foreign student education, the impact of this increase for Japan should not be underestimated.

In view of these circumstances, I would like to discuss some of the fundamental problems concerning the significance of the flow of foreign students in what we call "internationalization of higher education" from the Japanese point of view. Although not all the issues raised by the present circumstances in Japan may be shared by other OECD member countries, I suspect that there are quite a few issues for common discussion. Among others, "internationalization of the university" should be one of those issues. Regarding the theme of "internationalization," my particular concern here is to examine the significance (more accurately, the future possibility) of the increase of foreign students as a powerful driving force for change of the existing system of higher education toward a more internationalized one.

For this reason, the present seminar is structured around the main theme of "foreign students and internationalization of higher education." This main theme was proposed and set by the Japanese organizers, reflecting the current national concern in Japan but at the same time with the idea that internationalization of higher education concerns all of the OECD member countries, although the word "internationalization" may have quite different meanings in different settings, depending upon what kind of stance the user (country) takes.

---

* Paper presented as a keynote report.

** Professor, Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, Japan.

The main task of a keynote report should be to provide a general framework or a set of basic reference points for the entire seminar, but since that task will be fulfilled in the first keynote report by the OECD/CERI Secretariat, I will take the liberty of discussing the question of internationalization rather than proposing a broader framework for discussion. To be very honest, my intention here stems from my own personal interest in how internationalization is perceived in various countries and how internationalization of the university differs from one country to another, according to different conceptions (or perceptions) about internationalization.

1. Concept of Internationalization

Provisional Definition of Internationalization

There is a very interesting difference in meaning between the word "internationalization" in English and its Japanese counterpart "kokusaika." So, to begin with, let me make a brief comparison of the meanings of these two words.

When we first proposed the main theme for the present seminar, we started with a rather broad definition of "internationalization of higher education." The provisional definition of internationalization which appeared in the "Scope and Issues" paper for the present seminar by OECD/CERI (paragraph 18) states:

> "Internationalization of higher education is a process by which the educational provision of a higher education system *becomes* more sophisticated, enriched and broadly applicable to students from all backgrounds and countries, emphasizing especially the possibility of development of programs which are internationally and cross-culturally compatible, with a view toward providing all students with experiences and training necessary to develop skills for life in a world characterized by increasing international exchange." [Italics added].

I am interested in learning how many of you have noticed that this definition is very different from the Western definition of the word *interna-*

tionalization as appeared in the popular English dictionaries. The above definition was, needless to say, influenced from the Japanese standpoint and reflected the current concern over the issue in Japan. As we have mentioned in our country report, in Japan the word "*kokusaika*," meaning "internationalization" has become very widely used in recent years, not only in the field of business and economy but also in other areas such as education. It has been shown in recent studies that this word was already in use by some educators in prewar Japan,[2] but has acquired a popular usage since the 1960s.[3] Prior to that, the words "seiyoka" and "kindaika", meaning "Westernization" and "Modernization" respectively were in more frequent use. The word "kokusaika" meaning internationalization is very inclusive, as it may mean many things related to both "Westernization" and "modernization," plus "Japanization" in some context, depending upon the context or setting.

Although I do not feel that I need to correct this tentative definition for the time being, I feel that I need to elaborate somewhat on the background from which this definition was derived, since, as it seems to me, this difference is not merely a matter of semantics but is a manifestation of the difference in stance and attitudes towards the international community in the contemporary world.

Difference of Meaning of "Internationalization" between Japanese and English

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1961 edition), the first definition given for the word *internationalize* is "to render international in character or use." We should note here that this word is a transitive verb. The O.E.D. definition of *internationalize* continues to say: "spec. in mod. Politics, to bring (a country, territory, etc.) under the combined government or protection of two or more different nations." Likewise, a recent edition of Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1976) defines the word *internationalize* as "to make international in relations, effect, or scope, esp., to place under international control or protection."

Commenting on the narrow and clear-cut definition of internationalization in the West such as found in the popular English dictionaries, Michiko Hasegawa, a Japanese critic specialized in European history and international relations, has said that "they (European nations) see themselves as active subject and others (nations outside of Europe) mere objects." She adds that "The subject of *internationalization* was always some combination of active-subject nations; the object was always an entity outside their international network. The verb never acted upon the object in such a way as to bring it within the system. The object, remaining outside, was simply used by the active subjects as their shared property."[4]

In contrast to the English word *internationalize* as a transitive verb that acts upon others (people/state), the Japanese translation of *internationalize* (kokusaika suru) is an intransitive verb that designates "being in a process of becoming." The noun form (kokusaika) of the word is defined as "sekai ni tsuyo suru yoni naru koto," according to a Japanese dictionary,[5] literally meaning that "the process of becoming accepted by the rest of the world." I will take a chance here in assuming that present day Japanese generally consider internationalization to involve the process of *becoming* international in nature, whether we are talking about the internationalization of universities or of liberalization of trade. In other words, the Japanese think in terms becoming something (international) vis-a-vis others, not of acting upon others. The difference in the meanings of internationalization are apparently derived from different historical backgrounds in terms of different nation's participation in the world community although I am not able to go into details here in this report.

The Japanese concept of internationalization as a process of *becoming* international may include anything mobile across national boundaries, whether dealing with persons, goods, information, or techniques. Harumi Befu, an American anthropologist, has cited fifteen things or phenomena as concrete examples of what is involved in the processes of Japan's internationalization: they include 1) Western impact on Japan, 2) increase of foreigners in Japan, including foreign students and scholars, 3) increase of foreign investment in Japan, 4) liberalization of trade policy, 5) increase of Japanese investment abroad, 6) improvement of foreign language competence, 7) increased opportunities for Japanese association with foreigners, 8) promotion of understanding foreign cultures, 9) improvement of status of foreign faculty in the university, 10) easing of naturalization, 11) increase of Japanese language instruction both in Japan and abroad, 12) enhancement of cultural understanding of Japan, 13) enhancement of contrast between the Japanese and the other cultures, 14) assertion of cultural autonomy, and 15) contribution to world order.[6]

As is very well illustrated in the above list, the Japanese word "*internationalization*" carries many meanings. The multivocality or ambiguity is certainly characteristic of the word. There are of course quite a few Japanese critics who are very critical of using the word in such a broad meaning.

However, even though critics excite their audiences by warning them of the negative aspects of internationalization which include trade conflicts, illegal flow of foreign workers, etc., as a matter of fact, this word has recently won a very popular usage not only among policy makers and social leaders in various fields but also among ordinary Japanese. And it is interesting to note that the word "international" usually connotes positive images to us Japanese, i.e., the word suggests something fine, new, rich, pleasurable, sophisticated, and beautiful. Look around at the number of companies and products and even hotels which boast of being international. This positive image of internationalization seems to imply that the Japanese conceive internationalization to be not only an actual process or phenomenon but also a goal to be attained through close cooperation with other countries or a dream at least.

2. Foreign Students and Internationalization of the University

An Analytical Framework of Internationalization

In short, from the modern Japanese point of view, internationalization is a process of *becoming* international. But then, what does it mean to "become international" and what is the state of "being international"? In my understanding it means the process of increasing interdependence between different countries and its resultant processes of adjustment in nations involved, through increased mobility of persons, information, including skills and techniques, material goods, etc. More specifically, it designates social and cultural changes (acculturation) that occur on both sides in the process of interaction between countries or nations.[7]

The keyword here in this perception of internationalization as the process of "becoming" is a "two-way process" that occurs on both sides (countries) in interaction rather than a mere "one-way process" in which one acts upon the other but not vice versa. From my observations this process seems to consist of five dimensions such as the following.

1) *Values (Persons)* : Enrichment of culture through exchange (reciprocal transmission and acceptance) of different cultural elements—materialistic, informational, scientific, and affective value-added elements—and resultant increase of shared part of culture among different societies. Such value exchange is made through persons who represent those values (direct transmission) and many kinds of media (indirect transmission).

2) *System* : Development of the elaborate systems of counterparts and

establishment of compatibility in operation of institutional and organizational programs among different countries through promotion of exchange of personnel in various sectors/fields of the society.

3) *Rules* : Attainment of international consensus and common rules pertaining to the management of societal organizations and programs.

4) *Norms* : Development of better understanding and more respect to fundamental human rights and cultural differences, negating ethnocentrism, and observance of humanitarian values and norms.

5) *Orders* : Increase of opportunities for individuals to participate in various kinds of collaborative projects which contribute to building of peaceful world order and advancing welfare for all human beings and resultant growth of globalism.[8]

Dimensions of Internationalization of the University

The above list designates the process and structure of internationalization (as an analytical framework) in general terms, but we may apply the list of processes to the internationalization of the university in a more operational format so as to have a kind of inventory to measure to what extent a given university is internationalized. Let me suggest, in accordance with the above mentioned framework, five dimensions of internationalization of the university and some examples for them in relation to the flow of foreign students.

1) *Enrichment of educational programs and increase of diversified programs* : The University has long been considered to be international in its basic nature because academism has no national boundaries. Promotion of international academic exchange in various fields is expected to enrich educational programs and help in raising level of research. The flow of foreign students must be accelerating this function of the university, at least in theory. An example of foreign students' contribution to enrichment is that they often become resource persons of foreign cultures and languages. They stimulate professors as well as students to broaden the scope of curriculum contents. Increase of international exchange of established scholars is most significant in this respect.

2) *Establishment of compatibility of school credits* : If we are successful in developing comparable curriculum and credit systems in some fields of study and establishing definite evaluation systems in the manner that credits obtained at one university may be easily transferred to fulfill graduation requirements in another university abroad, we may say institutional compati-

bility has been established. With the increase of exchange programs between sister universities, establishment of compatibility of credits is becoming a significant issue among the Japanese institutions involved. Through such processes, university system will gradually become a world's system shared by many countries and to serve the welfare of mankind rather than a mere national system to serve the provincial interests of a nation-state.

3) *Attainment of international consensus in administrating higher education institutions* : Both promotion of international exchange programs and establishment of compatibility of credits require a certain degree of consensus in organizational management and operational rules between institutional partners, including the recruitment system for both faculty and administrative staff. In the case of Japan, for instance, there is a yearly growth in the number of foreign student advisors and organizational re-arrangements in the universities. Creation of faculty committees for international exchange as a part of the university organization is now very common in the Japanese universities, both in the public and private sectors. Reorganization of administrative offices to create an integrated office for international exchange is also emerging in universities with a number of foreign students. Such processes will make international exchange of information on foreign students much easier and more productive. In addition, we should include here institutional provisions for employing foreign scholars as full-time faculty members who participate in decision-making and receive full-fledged fringe benefits. This seems to be a matter of course in most of the western countries but has not been so in Japan. However, even in Japan, according to Kitamura, the situation is changing in recent years.[9]

4) *Promotion of intercultural understanding and development of norms necessary for cooperative activities (symbiosis) on and off campus* : Acquisition of deeper and more appreciative understanding of the host country may not necessarily be the primary goal for foreign students (and also for the countries that send their students abroad) but concerned people in the host country, including governmental officials, university administrators, professors or local citizens, are naturally interested in the promotion of intercultural understanding between the hosts and guests. As a matter of fact, foreign students acquire appropriate knowledge and skills of behavior necessary for surviving in the foreign environment through adjustment to academic as well as local life conditions. Learning of host society's culture is certainly desirable in many senses but we should leave it entirely to the voluntary will of foreign students. Forced cultural assimilation would invite only antagonism. I should

prefer here to emphasize that what we need is to search for more effective means of learning how to deal with and respect the cultural differences that foreign students bring into the host country, as I believe that recognition of differences among nations (human groups) and mutual respect for such differences are prerequisites for peaceful world co-existence.

5) *Increase of opportunities for individual scholars to international collaborative research projects* : Experience of participation in some kinds of international joint research projects is becoming very common to today's university professors. Foreign students will be the most prospective candidates for such projects to be planned in the host countries.

3. The Flow of Foreign Students and Internationalization of the University

The Dual Nature of the Modern University

Historically it has been emphasized that universities should be intrinsically universal and international. The traditional ideal of universities as characterized by "intellectual universalism and internationalism" has justified the presence of foreign students in higher education institutions with the expectation that their presence would help promote intercultural understanding and intellectual vitalization among domestic students as well as faculty. Thus, even today, the traditional ideal of intellectual internationalism constitutes the foundation of university as a "house of intellect" and justifies the free flow of foreign students population across national boundaries. Present day universities are continuously affirming the international character of higher education.[10]

However, the modern university has become somewhat more complicated. The modern universities are not independent institutions of higher learning totally free from state intervention but constitute a part of the public education system of the nation-state as "higher education institutions." Universities are assigned to take the responsibility of educating younger citizens of the country. One may call this function of public education "nationalization" of its citizens. As far as this responsibility is concerned, universities cannot help being more or less "nationalistic-oriented" in spite of the ideals of academic freedom and intellectual internationalism. Universities in the modern era have been given a double character, i.e., internationalism-oriented on the one hand and nationalism-oriented on the other. In other words, both "internationalization" and "nationalization" of its citizens are mandatory to the modern universities. This dual nature leads to the difficult problem of which group of students should be given priority in terms of enrollment and educational expenses. In my observation, the so-called cost-benefit issues with regard to foreign students that appears to be gaining world-wide concern has its philosophical base in this dual, sometimes conflicting, character of the modern university.

Coping with Diversity of Foreign Students: Some Realistic Problems in Internationalization of the University

Ideally speaking, the internationalization-oriented university will have to make every effort to devise a system that can accommodate all the differences that currently exist among students. When we understand the importance of accepting students from a wide range of foreign countries and educating them in view of internationalization of universities as part of development of a global community, we should be resolved to meet a lot of difficult problems in connection with improvement of the existing system of the university.

Now, the most important corollary derived from the above discussion of the Japanese concept of internationalization is "becoming (international)" rather than "acting upon others (to be internationalized)." The main implication of our concept of internationalization is that we need to adjust ourselves to various needs of foreign students rather than force them to be assimilated into our existing system. This, of course, does not mean that we should throw out everything we have and replace it with a different system. That is impossible and unrealistic. What I am saying is that we need to meet foreign students halfway and accommodate our systems and rules to be more flexible and also diversify our programs in accordance with the needs of foreign students. This ideal, however, is not as easily realized as one might think, because self-adjustment on our side can take many different forms.

Foreign students come from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and it is impossible for host institutions to cope with all of the diverse needs of those students. Even moderate endeavors on the host's part would require considerable amounts of time and money. From here, however, a very difficult and controversial issue concerning the treatment of foreign students arises: whether we should treat foreign students the same as domestic students or differently in terms of academic standards as well as social accommodations. As a matter of fact, it seems unrealistic to treat them perfectly equal when we consider their life conditions in general in the host society. But if we should treat them differently (or separately) in view of their possible handicaps in terms of language, economic base, learning style, life style, etc., then to what extent?

It has been pointed out that many difficult problems have emerged from the rapid growth of foreign student enrollments in individual institutions. One of them is the problem of "over-representation" of foreign students caused by an unbalanced distribution of foreign students in a particular institution or department. Furthermore, increase in number often means more diversification of motives, goals, basic academic skills, intelligence, learning style, and other personal traits of individual foreign students. How can we respond to such a situation?

There seem to be two alternatives the universities could choose in order to cope with diversity of international students in terms of their goals, motives and academic skills. One alternative is, being based on the "equal treatment" philosophy, to reject everyone who does not fulfill academic requirements by strictly applying the same academic standards set for the domestic students. For that, it is necessary to establish a rigid evaluation system. The other alternative is "special or unequal treatment" in which, linguistically unprepared foreign students can be admitted. In this case, special remedial or supplementary courses are offered as a part of compensatory programs. Included in this type of treatment is a special privilege or priority in accessibility to housing, etc. Japan has chosen the latter alternative, both explicitly and implicitly.

Let me elaborate on this with some Japanese examples. To make provisions such as diverse programs to compensate for "handicaps" of foreign students is an example of the explicit ways of "special" (or unequal!) treatment. Implicit special treatment is somewhat more complicated. When foreign students have language handicaps, considerable adjustments in teaching are inevitable in order to effectively cope with them. Such "adjustments" may take diverse forms, such as (1) to reduce the level of teaching, i.e., slowing down their teaching speed; avoiding difficult or complicated subject matter, etc., (2) to give special consideration to foreign students for term papers, term examinations, thesis, etc.

These are not necessarily explicitly or formally admitted ways of coping with the actual situation but totally depend upon the individual professors discretion. Nonetheless, there might be a general agreement among Japanese professors to soften the rules and regulations concerning graduation requirements for the benefit of foreign students. This means that there exists a "another curriculum" for foreign students. Such a "dual" structure in the curriculum and evaluation seems to emerge when "a hard or rigidly fixed structure of evaluation system" is not established. Although I have emphasized the importance of accepting foreign students from the point of view of internationalization, this should not be confused with producing "another curriculum."

4. Closing Remarks: Attitudes toward Foreign Students

Finally, let me add one more comment regarding our attitudes toward foreign students. I believe what is most important in treating foreign students is that we must do our best to respect them as equals and not fall into a big-brother mentality. Lee suggests that foreign students, especially those from Third World countries, when studying in developed countries, are prone to experience low self-concept.[11] Since self-esteem is a very important prerequisite for cross-cultural adjustment and academic success, acceptance of foreign students as independent persons with equal human dignity and respect for their culture are absolutely essential for successful training.

Related to this matter is the concept of "adjustment." As I have pointed out earlier, when we talk about foreign students' adjustment or maladjustment, we tend to take it for granted that the primary responsibility lies on the students' part. But this kind of attitude is not in accord with the norms of a true international community. A foreign student might have failed in adjustment to the host environment simply because that the host environment was so closed and ill-prepared to accept foreigners. We should keep in mind that adjustment is not a one-way process but a dynamic two-way process which is determined by interaction between the individual and the environment.

In short, the prime importance for foreign student education from the point of view of internationalization is to establish our basic attitudes toward foreign students and not to consider them merely as objects we educate but rather as teachers from whom we can also learn a wealth of things. I admit that if we think realistically, attempts to accommodate the increased diversity of foreign students inevitably will cause considerable financial strain. Even so, we cannot stop now, as learning from others should be the core value of internationalization.

Notes

1. For further details of governmental policies concerning foreign students in Japan, see the country report of Japan prepared for this seminar.(Ebuchi, Kazuhiro and Hicks, Joseph E., "Japanese Report," a paper submitted to OECD/CERI for the International Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students, Hiroshima, Japan, November 8-10, 1988.)

2. Itoh, Akihiro 1987, "Taisho-ki Nihon ni okeru 'Kyoiku no Kokusaika'" ('Internationalization of Education' in Taisho Period), An interim report for presentation to the Nihon Seimei Foundation research meeting, No.2, December, 1987. (Mimeographed)

3. Kitamura, Kazuyuki 1987, "Sengo Nihon ni okeru 'Kokusaiaka' Gainen," (The Concept of 'Internationalization' in Post-War Japan," An interim report for presentation to the Nihon Seimei Foundation research meeting, No.2, December, 1987. (Mimeographed)

4. Michiko Hasegawa, "The Tyranny of Internationalization,"*Japan Echo*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, 1986, pp. 49-55.

5. *Gensen: Kokugo Dai Jiten* (Unabridged Dictionary of the Japanese Language, compiled by Ohki Hayashi, Tokyo: Shogakukan, 1986)

6. Befu, Harumi 1983, "Internationalization of Japan and Nihon Bunkaron," in Mannari, Hiroshi and Befu, Harumi (eds.), *The Challenge of Japan's Internationalization: Organization and Culture*, Tokyo: Kodansha International Ltd., pp. 232-266.

7. Ebuchi, Kazuhiro 1988, "What is Internationalization?," *Gakunai Tsushin* (Newsletter), No. 260, Hiroshima University, 1988, pp. 4-11.

8. Ebuchi, Kazuhiro 1987, "Kokusaika Shiso no Kokusai Hikaku" (A Comparative Study on the Ideology of 'Internationalization'), An interim report for presentation to the Nihon Seimei Foundation research meeting, No.2, December, 1987. (Mimeographed)

9. Kitamura, Kazuyuki 1984, *Daigaku no Kokusaika* (Internationalization of the University), Tokyo: Tamagawa University Press, pp. 64-90.

10. Allaway, William H. and Shorrock, Hallam C. (eds.) 1985, *Dimensions of International Higher Education: The University of California Symposium on Education Abroad*, Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.

11. Lee, M.Y. 1985, "Prestige of Home Country and Self-Concept of Students from Developing Countries," *Journal of Social* Psychology , 126 (August), pp. 485-491.

4

INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION: INSTITUTIONAL POLICY ISSUES*

Seth Spaulding**

Issues concerning international students are not entirely new; many have been with us for some time. In 1231, King Henry III of England is reported to have spoken to the townspeople of Cambridge as follows:

> You are aware that a multitude of scholars from divers parts, as well this side the sea as from overseas, meets at our town of Cambridge for study, which we hold very gratifying and desirable thing, since no small benefit and glory assures therefrom to our whole realm...; unless you conduct yourselves with more restraint and moderation towards them...they will be driven by your exactions to leave your town and, abandoning their studies, leave the country, which we by no means desire.[1]

Henry III seems to have soothed the waters enough to ensure that Cambridge, some seven centuries later, has substantial numbers of international students. He probably would be surprised however, at the complexities of policy issues with which higher education must deal today.

The Players and Their Interests

Higher education institutional policy issues having to do with international students all revolve around the players in the higher education game. These players include policy-makers and administrators in government and in higher education institutions themselves; they include the faculty and domestic students in institutions of higher education; they include business and industry, the parents and the public. Other players are sponsoring and funding agencies, both in sending and receiving countries, and such international agencies as the United Nations Development Program and the various specialized agencies of the UN. Very important players in the game are the international students themselves.

---

*Paper presented at the session of Working Group A.

**Professor, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A.

All of these players have interests and concerns that impact on international students. These interests are often ideological and change from government to government. The policies of the Thatcher and Reagan governments, for instance, towards higher education are a part of a conservative ideology that, on the whole, has negatively affected higher education budgets in the UK and the United States and thus encouraged a harder look by university administrators at the costs of educating international students. At the same time, the enthusiasm of some faculty for the supposed enriched environment on campus because of the existence of a goodly number of international students has been tempered by the complaints of some domestic students and their parents concerning the use of international students as teaching assistants. Many complain that they can not understand their foreign accents.

The issues, of course, vary somewhat from country to country and institution to institution. Clearly, there is much greater variety in institutional policies among colleges and universities in a highly decentralized system as that in the United States than there is in many countries with a more centralized higher education system (for example, France). But no matter what the country, the broad issues generally have to do with the numbers of international students appropriate, the costs involved in their education, the services they need, and the academic concerns and opportunities raised by their presence on campus. Each of these issues are related to broader policy concerns of governments and academics. Some of these relate to foreign policy, foreign aid or immigration issues; others relate to the educational goals of institutions of higher education and how best to meet them.

Significant players in the higher education game are the foreign students themselves. Most higher education students who study elsewhere than in their own countries come from the developing or Third World to universities in industrialized nations. Of about a million such students world-wide in the mid-eighties, about two thirds went to Canada, France, West Germany, England, USA and the USSR. About half came from Asia, except those in France, who are largely from Francophone Africa and to a lesser degree from Francophone Asia. Most tend to be in engineering, computer science, management studies, agricultural or biological sciences, although there are substantial numbers in other areas as well.

Campus Issues in National Policy Context

Policy issues concerning foreign students on any university campus are reasonably straightforward: How many foreign students does the university want, in what academic areas and at what levels and why?; How will they be recruited and screened so that they most likely will be able to handle the work?; How much will the foreign students pay and for what?; How can the average and the marginal costs of foreign students in each academic area be figured?; If the university sees a value in having foreign students, how can legislatures and politicians be convinced of their value?; To want extent will foreign students be used as teaching and research assistants and in what areas?; When they are so used, what are the problems and the training needs to assure that they perform well?; How much will the needs of the foreign students and their countries be taken into account when structuring the course of study for each student?; How will foreign students be used to enrich the campus and the community while they are on campus?; How will the university provide counselling and other services needed by foreign students?; How much should the university assist foreign students in returning home and getting placed in satisfying positions?; How much should the host university cooperate with foreign students' home country institutions in arranging teaching and research opportunities there; and, in general, How truly international and multinational does an institution wish to be in terms of faculty, students, curriculum and research?

A number of these questions can be answered only in the context of governmental policy; some governments (national, provincial or local, depending on the higher education governance and political structures in a country) establish quotas for foreign students; others establish fee schedules or even visa charges designed to recover supposed educational costs. Some countries (for example, France, Germany, the Soviet Union, and most Eastern European countries), charge little or nothing to either domestic or foreign students; others have generous scholarship aid in the assumption that foreign student programs are sensible elements of foreign policy. In decentralized systems of higher education, as in the United States, each individual institution, within policies formulated by state governments, sets its own policies concerning foreign students. These policies, however, are affected by immigration rules concerning international students and by various legislative and policy trends having to do with institutional funding.

Policies vis-a-vis foreign students are often reactive rather than proactive. During periods of economic stagnation and of conservative political domination, many host countries change their attitude toward foreign students, tightening visa requirements, charging higher tuition and other fees, and generally becoming less welcoming. Many institutions of higher education, at the same time, need foreign students during such periods in order to fill the spaces available in some academic areas, and often to fill teaching and research assistantships at the doctoral level. Few host countries (other than perhaps the Soviet Union and the Eastern Bloc) have established a clear-cut, long-term policy toward foreign students which is based on reasoned judgement concerning academic and foreign policy goals. This is not to say that there have not been numerous commissions, studies, recommendations and occasionally unfunded laws (as with the unfunded International Education Act of 1966 in the U.S.). Few have had, however, any long term impact. One such commission in Canada has suggested that all universities enroll a minimum of foreign students: Canada's Bovey Commission recommended, in 1985, that the "proportion of visa students not fall below 5 percent of enrollment."[2] I have no current information as to the impact of that recommendation.

Quantifying the Benefits

The reasons why there are rarely coherent, long-term national policies in the foreign student arena are various. For one, it is difficult to quantify the benefits from hosting foreign students. Most academics feel that the quality of academia is improved when there are students and faculty from different cultures on campus. This provides, they would claim, an opportunity to make higher education truly universal, with young people learning during their periods of formation that we are, indeed, one world, with issues and problems which are universal and which require world cooperation to resolve. But how do you put a financial value on this?

Many foreign policy specialists and even politicians feel that there is a long term value in having students trained in their universities return to home countries to become leaders in politics, business, the military and in other areas. This is an area often dubbed "public diplomacy" essentially referring to activities involving citizens of nations rather than the traditional diplomacy involving only governments and their foreign ministries. But how do you quantify this benefit? How much is this worth to host governments in terms of financing the costs associated with international students on campuses?

Such cost questions are especially significant in times of financial austerity. When universities are cutting back rather than expanding, the prudent administrator looks for ways to save funds where it will least affect the health of the institution. Budget cuts have been deep at many universities of countries which host the majority of foreign students. Even the prestigious universities such as Oxford are finding that they do not have the funds for filling faculty vacancies and for other core institutional costs. Is it any wonder that questions are being raised as to the costs of international students on campus?

What are the Real Costs?

Essentially, in some institutions and in some countries, the debate in policy circles concerning financing of higher education has somewhat eclipsed, in recent years, the more substantive concerns having to do with the intellectual or foreign policy benefits of having students on campus. Higher education is seen by many as something needed by domestic students and supported by their parents, and although foreign students are tolerated, they are expected more and more to pay what is considered the full cost of their education. This in turn, raises the question of the real cost. Marginal cost (actual money spent for each additional student) may be far less than average cost, especially in academic areas where there are extra spaces on university campuses. In addition, up to a certain institutional expansion may provide economies of scale, with average per-student cost declining.

The concern for costs has created a patchwork of policies in many countries. In Canada, foreign students pay anywhere from 50-300% over what domestic students pay. In the United States, most universities charge international students out-of-state tuition which is often around twice what in-state students pay. In England, the fees for international students rose dramatically in the early 80's to the point where enrollment dropped off equally dramatically. From 1970/80 to 1983/84, foreign students enrollment dropped by almost 40%. Policy-makers now appear to be moderating the Draconian fee structure of the early 80's in order to attract somewhat more international students in the future (apparently even the Thatcher government now agrees with King Henry III that it is not a good idea to chase away all the international students!).

Higher fee structures not only discourage international students from coming, they also largely limit those who do come to children from wealthier families (by far most international students are self-supporting or supported by their families). Some countries and institutions which have relatively high fee structures have a variety of mechanisms to grant scholarships to poorer international students; others, such as France, charge little to any international students who succeeds in gaining admission.[3]

A number of private colleges and universities in the United States which have excess capacity have, in recent years, stepped up recruitment of international students in order to maintain enrollment levels at a minimum critical mass necessary to maintain full academic programs. Some of these institutions have establishes offices to recruit and service international students and some have even set up special academic programs which they feel are more relevant to the needs of international students from the Third World.

Collaborative Institutional Arrangements

Many major research universities have number of programs which encourage the exchange of students or scholars among universities and countries. Some of these programs are university-wide and encouraged under such structures as the University Center for International Studies at the University of Pittsburgh. Under Pitt's university-wide center are various area study centers (dealing with Asia, Latin America, Soviet Union, etc.) within which all faculties and programs on campus cooperate. Such centers not only encourage exchange of scholars, but also encourage continuing collaborative relationships with universities in other nations.

Such cooperative research and faculty/student exchange activities raise few problems from a substantive point of view unless students under such arrangements wish to take course work which will be transferred home. Western European governments and universities, for instance, have for years issued much rhetoric concerning the desirability of increasing student exchange among universities in the region, but problems of differences in curriculum and degree requirements have severely limited such exchange to very small numbers of students. The situation may be changing rapidly with most Common Market countries accepting the ERASMUS scheme, designed to encourage student flows within the EEC.

Comparability of Degrees

Unesco and others have done numerous studies concerning the equivalency of degrees, but commonly understood standards of transferability of credit among and between countries are far from being achieved. With the movement of some universities toward a cumulative course credit system (such as that in place in the United States) some of these comparability questions may be more solvable in the future.

Perhaps the best efforts to date to come up with information on comparability of degrees are the various publications (sometimes joint) of the American Association of College Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO) and the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA). The National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials of

AACRAO includes NAFSA and other higher education organizations, and over 20 workshops on individual countries and closely related countries have been held, each issuing a report, and some 60 or more country of regional guides have been issued to date.[4] These describe the educational systems in countries examined, and attempt to establish U.S. equivalents of degrees offered at both school and higher education levels. These recommendations are purely advisory and are accepted or ignored by institutions and their faculties as they see fit. To my knowledge, there has been no attempt to cross-reference or matrix such studies, and to discuss the recommendations multilaterally so that the standard of comparability suggested might be adopted by countries other than the U.S.

With complex countries such as India, the problem of establishing comparability is immense. As an example, in a 1986 report of a joint AACRAO/NAFSA "Projects for International Education Research" workshop held in 1985, India is listed as having over 125 universities and university-level institutions recognized by the Association of Indian Universities and over 5000 recognized colleges, all with over three million students.[5] The report attempts to describe degrees in differing academic areas, suggesting, in general, that most master's degrees in India are the equivalent of only an undergraduate degree in the United States and that most bachelor's degrees are only worth some credit toward advanced undergraduate placement in the U.S. There are some exceptions where bachelor's or master's degrees represent a cumulative total number of years of study beyond the average and these are considered the equivalent of U.S. degrees.

Such guidelines are, indeed, useful. One can not wonder, however, if they will not lead to excessive rigidity. Having dealt with Indian students over the years and having had considerable success with those who have come with bachelor's degrees to proceed toward a master's and with those who have come with a master's and who have had this credited toward a Ph.D., I am wondering if the AACRAO recommendations are not overly restrictive. Of course, one can take the position that one should be more selective rather than less. One hopes, nonetheless, that the registrars and foreign student advisors who recommended such standards have based them not only on quantitative standards based on numbers of years involved in degree programs in India, but also on the experience faculty members in the U.S. have had with Indian students in the past and how well students with various credentials from specific institutions have or have not performed on U.S. campuses.

Host Institution Contacts with Home Countries

Some institutions which are serious about the quality of international students, especially at the graduate, have tried home-country recruitment and interview visits. The faculty members involved is such efforts not only are able to better judge the quality of applicants through such visits, but also often develop a better understanding of the context from which the foreign students come. This helps the faculty members to appropriately enrich the academic program to suit foreign students, and often develops into inter-institutional relationships which go far beyond student exchange.

Occasionally, this kind of relationship will develop into a program whereby some training is done in the host institution to complement degree training in a home institution, rather than exclusively full degree programs at the host institution. Also the host institution may send faculty to the home institution to offer courses there—often at less cost to the home country authorities and families than sending students abroad.

Finally, such programs encourage students from other countries to remain or return home to use their skills there. Studies of the migration of high-level talent generally show that there are numerous push-pull factors operating in the so-called "brain-drain" phenomenon. If host institutions and home institutions and governments are in good contact and if host institutions counsel international students concerning opportunities at home, then far fewer international students will be likely to migrate.

Migration of talent issues, of course, are complex. In countries where there is an over-production of university graduates there may be an advantage to the country of some out-migration. Egypt is a case in point. Excess high-level manpower exported by Egypt produces considerable foreign exchange (large sums are returned by Egyptians working abroad) and diminishes the political pressure for jobs that might occur if out-migration were not available as a safety valve.

Concluding Remarks

Clearly, institutional policy issues surrounding international students are many and these, in turn, are further complicated by changing policy climates at the national and international levels. I have only touched on the many issues in this paper, but perhaps this introduction has been sufficient to suggest that more visibility is needed for such issues at all levels: institutional, provincial, national and international.

In a sense, the issues vary somewhat depending on the direction of the flow of international students. Most, in the past, have come from the poor countries to the rich countries. Few have traveled from rich to poor (other than those in special programs such as the Peace Corps and the United Nations volunteers) and few have traveled from poor to poor countries (although this flow may be increasing). Curiously enough, relatively few students have traveled from rich countries to rich countries in recent years, largely because of the problem of equivalency of degrees.

International policy studies in the future might concentrate on issues which might be resolved through collaboration at the various levels. Unesco, for instance, might be encouraged to improve the already impressive coverage of its *Study Abroad* manual through a series of conferences with national authorities who know how to find and collect such information in a more comprehensive and complete fashion. Organizations such as AACRAO and NAFSA in the United States might be urged to cooperate with similar organizations in other countries and with governmental and intergovernmental authorities (for instance, OECD, Unesco, the European Community, and other regional organizations) so as to come up with cross-referenced degree equivalency recommendations understandable by and of use to all countries. It appears, for instance, that AACRAO does not cooperate of the moment, with the EEC's TRACER program which is establishing equivalencies among European universities; AACRAO's apparent policy in the past has been to ignore any other regional or international efforts to establish mutually agreed-upon standards.

At the international level, more case study and descriptive information is needed on how various universities and governments organize and manage services and programs for international students. Many universities have extensive experience in dealing with issues of internationalization and with problems associated with foreign students. Others who wish to move more vigorously into these arenas wish concrete information on who does what to whom and at what cost in the more experienced institutions. Such information must be collected and synthesized in a format which can be easily used by policy-makers and administrators in governments and higher education institutions.

Tracer studies, to see what has happened to students trained abroad, are badly needed. Such studies can provide information helpful in assessing the impact of such programs; they can also help governments and universities adjust improve their programs and policies based on real date rather than on assumptions as to the impact of such study. Again, considerable anecdotal material exists, but there are no systematic efforts to collect such tracer information in a format which would be useful to planners and administrators.

Such information, indeed, might encourage national governments, to give higher *continuing* priority to educational and cultural exchange as a significant element of foreign policy. Universities and the other players in the higher education game similarly would be encouraged if they had support to undertake such tracer studies.

In the meantime, perhaps all can agree with the simple but profound preamble to the Unesco constitution: "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed." In the long run, student exchanges will be cost effective today if they contribute, however modestly, toward constructing the defences of peace in the minds of the young people who will lead the world tomorrow.

References

Lulat, Y.G-M, Philip G. Altbach and David H. Kelly, *Governmental and Institutional Policies on Foreign Students: Analysis, Evaluation and Bibliography,* Buffalo, New York: Comparative Education Center, Faculty of Educational Studies, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1986.

Spaulding, Seth, "Research on Students From Abroad: the Neglected Policy Implications," Chapter 15 (pp.321-339) of George Coelho (editor), *Uprooting and Development: Dilemmas of Coping with Modernization,* New York, 1980.

Spaulding, Seth and Michael Flack, *The World's Students in the United States: A Review and Evaluation of research on Foreign Students,* New York: Praeger, 1976.

The American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO) and the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), *The Admission and Placement of Students from South Asia: Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka,* Washington,D.C.: AACRAO and NAFSA, 1986.

Unesco, *Study Abroad,* XXV (1987-1988), Paris: Unesco, 1986.

Unesco, *World Guide to Higher Education: a Comparative Survey of Systems, Degrees and Qualifications.* Paris and New York: Bowker, UNIPUB and Unesco, 1982.

Notes

1. Peter Williams, ed., *A Policy for Overseas Students,* London: Overseas Students Trust, 1982, p.10 (quoted in Lulat, Altbach and Kelly, 1986: see references at end of paper).
2. Quoted by Lulat and others (1986), p.11.
3. Unesco's *Study Abroad,* issued periodically since 1948, covers scholarships, training

grants, academic and exchange opportunities offered in countries around the world. The XXVth edition (1987-1988) covers 124 countries and lists some 3,700 entries in a trilingual volume some 1,347 pages long. Even so, anyone knowledgeable about their own higher education system will notice that many opportunities are missed. Unesco, I am told, is re-examining its methods of gathering such information with the idea of securing better cooperation from the many institutions who should look to this effort as the primary international register of available opportunities.

4. Recent volumes in the World Education Series (largely funded by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the United States Information Agency), include those on Belgium (1985), the Federal Republic of Germany (1986), and France (1988); a full listing is available from AACRAO, One Dupont Circle, NW, Washington,D.C. 20036. Unesco's *World Guide to Higher Education* (Second Edition, 1982) gives brief summaries of the higher education systems in most of Unesco's member states and a useful history of Unesco's attempts to encourage recognition of degrees between countries. These attempts have included suggested "conventions" between countries, a kind of diplomatic agreement, but few of these agreements have proven feasible or successful.

5. AACRAO/NAFSA, *The Admission and Placement of Foreign Students from South Asia* ..., p.115.

5

MEASURES AND IMPACTS OF FOREIGN STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN THE UNITED STATES HIGHER EDUCATION: POLICY, PRACTICE AND RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES*

Douglas M. Windham**
Alan P. Wagner***

I. Introduction

Research on the determinants and effects of foreign student study in the United States is characterized by the irony of a dramatic increase in the amount of research but a continuing failure to develop a unifying conceptual structure within which the individual research activities can be integrated to produce state and national policy prescriptions, institutional responses, and assistance to individual student decision making. With the noteworthy exceptions of Winkler (1981), Fry (1984), and Dresch (1986), few studies of foreign student participation in U.S. higher education have provided an adequate conceptualization of the interaction of individual, institutional, sponsor, and national needs that is a prerequisite if the research is to facilitate improved policy making and management related to this topic.

The importance of an improved link between the research, policy, and institutional practice in this area is indicated by the basic data on foreign students participation in the United States. In 1985/1986, the Institute of International Education reported that there were 343,777 foreign students enrolled in U.S. colleges and universities. In recent years, the aggregate enrollments have begun to stabilize; while growth rates of 10 percent or more were common in the 1970's, recent increases have been at the rate of only about 1 percent per year (continuing increases of over 8 percent from South and East Asia are offset by actual declines in the number of students from other regions). In 1985/86, 156,830 (46 percent) of all foreign students in the United States were from South and East Asia.

---

* Paper presented at the session of Working Group A.

** Professor, State University of New York at Albany, U.S.A.

*** Principal Administrator, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).

Within the United States, California attracted the largest number of foreign students (47,586) followed by New York (31,360) and Texas (26,875). Miami-Dade Community College was the institution with the largest foreign enrollment (4,730) followed by the University of Southern California (3,741) the University of Wisconsin at Madison (2,873), Ohio State University (2,690), and Columbia University - including Barnard and Teachers College (2,679). The most popular field of study for foreign students in 1985/86 continued to be engineering. The next three most popular were, in order, business and management, mathematics and computer science, and the physical and life sciences.

While of some nominal interest, these aggregate figures disguise the wide variation that occurs in the experiences of individual students or student groups. Most of the useful research on foreign students has attempted to go beyond the aggregate data to more specific sets of data (e.g., by nation of origin, field of study, or institution) that may include more detailed qualitative and quantitative information.

Notwithstanding the very limited number of such studies, the aggregate data indicate that the actual and potential significance of foreign student participation in U.S. higher education has undergone significant changes in the last decade. It is no longer a growth industry wherein foreign students compete with American students for scarce places. While adult and other non-traditional sources of enrollment have delayed the effects of the most dire forecasts of enrollment declines, many U.S. colleges and universities now have excess capacity to accommodate additional foreign students just as aggregate demand by foreign students has stabilized. While individual institutions and programs still maintain an environment of strong American and foreign competition for admissions, the majority of institutions represent opportunities for greater access than is being taken advantage of by the current cohort of foreign students.

The determinants and effects of this situation need to be analyzed in terms of two major dimensions: information and incentives. The information system for higher education in the United States remains a source of frustration for everyone from national policy makers to individual foreign students. At present there is a greater quantity of information available than ever before but the usefulness of this information is increasingly suspect. Again, part of the problem is the issues of aggregation. Colleges and universities in the United States are more internally variable and externally incomparable than was the case in the 1960's and 1970's. The increase in the number of departments and programs available to foreign students and the need for institutional choices on program priorities has meant that one no longer can consider overall institutional reputation as a satisfactory guide to the institutional quality of specific programs. Weak programs exist even in the best institutions, but the problem of variation is manifest when one reaches the second level of institutions that dominate in the enrollment of both American and foreign students.

The current need is for research that will not simply identify problems–most institutional administrators and foreign students are sufficiently cognizant of the nature and seriousness of the problems that exist. Rather, what is needed is research that is designed to satisfy the number one constraint on improved institutional operations and enhanced educational opportunities for foreign students in the United States: improved information and better articulated and more effective incentives for students, faculty, institutions, host and sending country governments, and sponsors.

II. Specific Measures and Program Impacts

The effect of the presence (or absence) of foreign students on a particular institution can be divided into five main subcategories of measures and impacts: (A) curriculum; (B) admissions; (C) finance; (D) administration; and (E) institutional goals and public support. This division should not be interpreted to suggest that the measures and impacts are distinct and independent within each subcategory, however. The effects of foreign students are more likely to be diffuse and simultaneous across multiple subcategories. Thus, although the measures and impacts will be discussed separately for the five subcategories, one should keep in mind the reality that any attempt to deal with a particular issue (e.g., admissions or finance) is likely to have important implications for foreign student impacts in some other area of the institution's operation. A second major consideration that must be maintained in the following discussion is that "institutional" effects are, in fact, the sum of the effects of foreign student participation in the institution's individual colleges, schools, departments, and inter-department and subdepartment programs. A positive or negative effect from foreign student participation may exist in one program without any necessarily corresponding effect in another program even within the same department. One of the institutional policy choices that administrators must face is to decide when to structure new information and incentive strategies on an institution-wide basis and when to allow separate and varying strategies among individual institutional units.

A. Curriculum Effects

The poorest current documentation of foreign student participation in the United States exists in the area of curriculum. While data are available on choice of major field of study, little information exists on the nature of the curricular choices presented to foreign students. The focus of the central debate is quite clear, however: should the institution or institutional units adapt the existing curriculum to the foreign student or will the foreign student be expected to adapt to the present curriculum?

In recent years, two trends have developed in the United States which mirror the patterns which have existed in most European nations for dealing with this quandary. The first is the increased expectation that foreign students in degree programs will be expected to meet the full set of program requirements that apply to all other students. This pattern has developed in response to faculty and public pressures to maintain program "integrity" and to demands by foreign students to receive an education equivalent to that available to domestic students. In most graduate programs, a distinction is made among the core courses (which all students must take), the field specialization (which may or may not allow for the special interests of foreign students) and elective courses (which allow all students to select courses suited to their individual interests limited only by the availability of the courses and approval by the academic advisor). Almost all graduate programs offer directed individual study courses as part of either the field specialization or electives so as to accommodate specific student interests (foreign or otherwise).

The Second major curricular trend is an increase in the amount of non-degree study done by students. While post-doctoral study in the United States by foreign students has long been common, there has been a dramatic increase in the demand for non-degree study by candidates with less than doctoral levels of academic preparation. The advantage of such programs to the institution is that there is no need to modify existing curricular (or admission) requirements that have been established for degree-granting programs.

The primary advantage to the foreign students and their sponsors is that non-degree programs may be tailored for their specific needs and abilities.

Such non-degree programs may be offered in the language of the foreign student and may even take place in the student's home country, thus removing two of the major barriers to participation in regular academic programs. The higher unit costs of the tailored programs often is offset by the reduced time the students need to be away from their home country. Finally, sponsors often have a preference for non-degree study because it is expected to enhance the candidates' capacities without providing them a marketable degree; the latter can cause problems if it leads to internal or external migration of the candidate to new employment.

A third curricular device that is common in Europe but has not yet been widely introduced into the United States is the establishment of fully separate programs--and even separate institutions--for foreign students. The reason this has not become common in the United States is partly a product of history and partly a result of policy decisions. At the time of the emergence of major foreign student interest in American academic programs in the 1950's and 1960's, a post-colonial approach to foreign student training already had evolved in the United States. Foreign students were not viewed so much as a diplomatic responsibility as an educational opportunity for widening domestic students' experiences and opening up the curriculum to new ideas and influences. Those goals could not be achieved through segregation of foreign students. More cynically, one might view more recent decisions by administrators to encourage admission of foreign students into existing programs as an attempt to spread fixed program costs over a larger number of students. These economies of scale would not be as likely to exist if the institution were to decide to create a new and separate program for foreign students. Lost amid this combination of motives of institutional enlightenment and self-interest has been the question of whether separate programs would not better serve the interests of the foreign students. The answer may well be negative; however, at least in the United States, this question has not been examined fully and proper weight has not been given to the perspective of the interests of the foreign students and their sponsors.

The increased expectation that foreign students will participate in existing programs has some important policy implications for the institution. It reduces the institution's exposure to charges of reverse bias or professional condescension. More importantly, it can make the academic program more international in that faculty and students are encouraged to consider the cultural generalizability of their concepts, theories, and models and to interpret new paradigms in terms of multiple national environments and experiences. Finally, foreign student participation in the institution can be shown to have a low marginal cost (the difference in total costs with and without foreign students) that is more commensurate with the resources the foreign students bring to the institution.

A clear understanding of foreign student curricular impact can only be achieved by assessing the effects at the level of individual programs. For example, what percentage of students in a particular class or specialization are foreign students? What percentage of classes that a foreign student takes involve only foreign students? This micro-level assessment of the curriculum structure will provide a more realistic view of whether a separate course of study for foreign students exists within an apparently open program structure. Again, the issue of marginal costs must be considered. Are there courses and even faculty members whose function is solely to service the needs of foreign students? This topic will be returned to below in the discussions of institutional finance and of the relationship of institutional goals to public support.

B. Admissions

In the United States, admissions programs are extraordinarily decentralized. Although most institutions will have a foreign student admissions officer, this individual often does not have the final say on admissions at the undergraduate level and rarely makes the admission decision in the case of applicants for graduate study. The foreign student admissions officer is responsible for a wide range of critical support and facilitating functions related to faculty review of the student's academic, language proficiency, social, financial, and immigration status preparation for study in the United States.

The final admissions decision normally will be made in consultation with standards established, if not administered, by faculty members. At the graduate level, the modal form of organization is for the foreign student admissions officer to establish that candidates meet certain minimum criteria for admissions and for the academic school or department to make the final decision on whether to accept or deny admission to the program. This division of institutional responsibility is appropriate since the foreign student officer often has more expertise in matters related to immigration issues, interpretation of foreign academic transcripts, and language proficiency while the academic school or department has the ultimate responsibility for issues of program structure and standards. Five special institutional concerns exist in the admissions area at present: (1) language proficiency; (2) evaluation of foreign academic transcripts and records; (3) social/psychological preparation; (4)

"trial"-status admissions; and (5) research-development projects tied to admissions expectations.

The most discussed foreign student problem probably is that of language proficiency. Approximately three out of every four students admitted to the United States for study originate from non-English speaking nations. This statistic is partly misleading, however, because of the frequency of English-language use as a second language in many nations and its popularity as the foreign language of first choice in most academic systems. To meet the problem of English language proficiency, institutions in the United States have developed over 300 intensive English language programs that currently enroll over 24,000 students.

As the number and proportion of foreign students have increased, so has the controversy over language proficiency. Faculty members complain about the increased responsibility posed by this problem and language proficient students become frustrated over the slower pace of classroom discussions. Many foreign students become reluctant to participate in classroom discussion, thus reducing their own chance to improve their language skills and reducing the benefits to other students from learning of foreign student's experiences and perspectives. One response to the problem of language proficiency is for institutions to increase language requirements. Required scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) now commonly range from 500 to 550 with some institutions and departments having higher standards.

Even small increases in TOEFL score requirements can pose serious burdens to foreign students. Since the score distribution approaches a normal distribution, small increases above the mean level will exclude substantial numbers of candidates. The controversy is exacerbated by the serious and legitimate concerns about the ability of TOEFL scores to serve as adequate indicators of the form of language proficiency required for classroom and research work. While there is an emerging trend in graduate programs to use personal interviews to establish language proficiency, this is rarely feasible for undergraduate admissions (because of the quantity of applications) and is an operational alternative only for those institutions or programs where staff or alumni are active overseas.

The evaluation of the academic records of foreign applicants has increased greatly in effectiveness in the last decade largely as a result of the efforts of foreign student advisors and their professional associations. However, such norm-referenced standards as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) will continue to be used as a secondary (if not primary) check on the academic preparation of foreign candidates. While these tests also are under criticism for issues of validity and reliability, their predictive value, when properly used, is sufficiently well established that one may expect their continued use. Both tests apparently are better predictors of failure than of success (individuals who score poorly rarely do well while those who score well may do poorly), but generally they are considered to be more directly interpretable than the myriad of variables that determine classroom grades in all nations.

Again, the situation is different in terms of institutional impact at the graduate level. Many graduate programs, and especially those that receive significant numbers of foreign applicants, have faculty members who have worked overseas and/or have foreign colleagues who can help them in interpreting the quality and appropriateness of an applicant's formal academic preparation. Whatever the situation, the issue is never one of establishing certainty of success; rather, institutions and their faculty members are dealing with probabilities and attempting to maximize the likelihood that a specific candidate can succeed in (and will benefit from) the institution's program.

The third area of admissions impact has to do with the social and psychological preparation of the foreign applicant. While long ignored as an admissions issue, this subject has come to the forefront in recent years as a topic of major interest. Biggs (1986) has pointed out that most foreign students face a cognitive dilemma in adapting to study abroad and that this dilemma is not primarily a function of the traditional concerns with language skills, academic preparation, or even with the common understanding of the socialization process. He suggests that foreign students often will encounter problems because of "information processing" difficulties resulting from the very different cognitive and memory histories they bring to their learning tasks. This problem is lessened to the extent students originate in an educational system that shares the assumptions, paradigms, and techniques used in the receiving system. However, Biggs notes that foreign students have found that "their constructs, propositions, and prototypes were not useful for organizing information, identifying relationships among concepts, and deriving substantive meanings about possible actions."

Most institutions that receive foreign students make a substantial effort at socialization and acculturation of foreign students as part of the general orientation process for new students. However, it is becoming increasingly obvious that greater attention needs to be given to the cognitive and psychological orientation of foreign students to increase the probability that they can benefit from the offered programs and to minimize the instructional burden on faculty members in dealing with students unable to adapt to the "cognitive style" of instruction in the program.

A special socialization problem exists in terms of the situation when the foreign student is a member of a large group of students from the same country. While this situation often eases some socialization problems because of the existence of an extant support system for the new student, problems may emerge if the student becomes so dependent upon the group of fellow students that he or she does not take full advantage of exposure to the institution's programs or of the larger community's activities. The problem can become so severe that a student's English language skills actually can decline if all out-of-class time is spent speaking the home country language.

Proper monitoring and counseling by the institution can ameliorate some of these dangers. Certainly, even more severe problems can result in the case of the isolated foreign student who has no support system or collegial network for assistance and contact. It is an appropriate responsibility of the institution and its members to assure that opportunities are made available for a variety of socialization activities and that new students are not left to become solely dependent upon their country colleagues for information and assistance.

Partly in response to these aforementioned admissions issues of language, transcript interpretation, and social/psychological preparation, more institutions are engaging in "trial-admissions" programs. Most commonly, these consist of admission to non-degree programs with an explicit or implicit understanding that success by the candidate can lead to admission to a formal degree program. Such admissions are quite common at the graduate level. Also, many graduate programs will use admissions to a master's degree program as a trial-admission for candidates who apply for doctoral degree programs but do not fully meet all requirements. The performance of the student in the master's degree program will then provide the program staff with better information as to the applicant's capacity for doctoral study.

The advantages of trial-admissions are rather obvious for the institution. A certain degree of revenue generation is obtained with a minimum commitment on the part of the institution. The level of this minimum commitment, however, is often a matter of concern to faculty members and foreign student advisors who find that students admitted under such arrangements often pose special problems. Normally, the students will not be as well prepared for study as other foreign students and this will impose special burdens on instructors and academic advisors. The special form of limbo imposed on these students in terms of academic status can engender its own set of insecurities and uncertainties, and these can create additional problems for the foreign student offices.

The advantages for trial-admissions are less obvious for the foreign student. The argument is made that such students are given an opportunity that otherwise would be denied to them if such "trial" status did not exist. While credible, this proposition does not consider the implicit moral hazard represented by trial admissions. Trial status can become a substitute for the institution fulfilling its admissions decision responsibility in more traditional ways. Also, there will be a temptation to allow more and more trial admissions solely as a means of low-risk revenue generation. In addition, to the extent that the trial-admission students are less well-prepared, the effects of such a procedure can be to reduce support for foreign student admissions generally among domestic students and faculty members.

The final hazard, of course, is posed by the need to make new admissions decision within a relatively short time. Negative decisions, regardless of their justification, will create disappointment and frustration. Also, there may be a tendency for generosity on the part of the program in admitting students who have done only marginally well in the trial programs. This can lead to the admission to advanced programs of students who otherwise would not have qualified.

In summary, no simple positive or negative conclusion can be drawn concerning trial-admission procedures. As with most institutional impacts of foreign students, the ultimate effect will be a product of the institution's administrative capacity and sense of academic responsibility. The institution's interests in this situation are not necessarily congruent with those of the student. A responsible institution will take both sets of interests into account in establishing their policies and will create explicit criteria and an open decision process so as to assure foreign students and their sponsors of the fairness of the system.

A final admissions controversy that has emerged in the United States in the last decade is related to the training "packages" that are attached to international development assistance projects. Both bilateral and multilateral assistance agencies often provide funding for non-degree and degree-level study as part of larger technical assistance projects. Such projects, involving the payment of salaries and overhead costs to institutions, are especially attractive to institutions with excess capacity in terms of research and training personnel.

When a technical assistance project is awarded to an institution or a consortium of institutions, there often is an expectation of the part of the participant countries' representatives (and sometimes even by the donors) that special (if not assured) admissions considerations will be given to students from these countries. However, quite often the university agency contracting for a development assistance contract is not a department or program unit and simply does not have authority over admissions decisions. The result of the difference between external expectations and internal institutional operations can be confusion, disappointment, and a potential disenchantment with the project's foreign student training component by the institution, the donors, and the sending nations.

C. Finance

Among non-academic issues related to foreign students, none concerns college and university administrations more than that of financing. The combination of fiscal restraints, the need for financial equity, and a residual political xenophobia make the policy debate over foreign student financing a controversial one.

The most widely-debated financing issue is the implicit tuition subsidy awarded to foreign students. Such subsidies arise when tuition and fee charges fall short of per-student costs of instruction. This is especially true in the public sector where colleges and universities in the U.S. commonly charge a level of tuition that is estimated to average less than one-half of the full instructional cost of the institution. The higher "out-of-state" or foreign student tuitions that are charged by some institutions to foreign students still tend to leave a significant share of costs to be borne by the state taxpayer.

While this issue has attracted considerable attention, economists and higher educational finance specialists are themselves divided in their appraisal of the incidence and amount of the implicit tuition subsidy of foreign students. The criticisms are directed principally at the way in which per-student costs are calculated, the level of aggregation, and the limitation of the net subsidy measure itself as an indication of the benefits and costs associated with foreign student enrollments (Wagner, 1983, 1985; Throsby, 1985).

The most basic question is which measure of costs should be used. The definition of "full-cost tuition" can be interpreted in terms of marginal versus average cost, specific program costs versus institution-wide costs, and instructional versus total costs; each definition would lead to a different conclusion as to the nature and the amount of the implicit subsidy.

Under most circumstances, the marginal cost measure is preferred–foreign students typically represent such a small share of total enrollment that their presence requires very small increases in resources allocated for instruction.

However, the choice between cost measures becomes a bit less clear for institutions in which foreign students account for a larger share (e.g., 25.1 percent of total enrollment at the University of San Francisco). Throsby (1985) suggests that an average cost measure may be chosen for other reasons, such as third-party (e.g., state) funding criteria. The choice can lead to quite different estimates of the size of costs (and net subsidy). For example, enrollments at many colleges fall short of the number which could be served with committed resources. In the short run, the marginal cost of additional foreign student enrollments in these institutions is likely to be quite small in absolute terms and in relation to average costs. Moreover, given the indivisibility of some of the inputs used in instruction (e.g., research facilities, a faculty with appropriate breadth and depth), marginal costs evaluated over the long run can be less than average costs for enrollments ranging up to least cost levels (To, 1987). Alternatively, for institutions with enrollments at least cost levels, additional foreign student enrollments would impose marginal costs greater than average costs.

Measurement of the components of costs raises additional problems. Resources devoted to research, such as faculty or graduate student time, frequently generate both instruction and research outputs. The appropriate allocation to instruction is problematic. Similarly, resources devoted to institutional administration, the library, and building and grounds also serve functions other than instruction. For the most part, allocations among instruction, research, and service functions result from judgments concerning institutional mission.

These considerations also apply for programs within a college or university. So, within the same institution, some programs may operate with excess capacity while others may take on enrollments which exceed capacity. The balance among instruction, research, and service outputs may differ similarly at the program level, where faculty may be relatively more or less engaged in these activities. To a lesser extent, the allocation of indirect costs might differ as well. The implication is that per student costs evaluated at the institution level mask potential intra-institution variations so that, when coupled with the distribution of foreign student enrollments across programs, net subsidy estimates could be substantially under-or over-estimated (see Throsby, 1985).

Quite apart from these more technical matters, net subsidy calculations of the type described here fail to take into account the full range and incidence of benefits and costs associated with foreign student enrollments. Such "financial" benefits as export promotion (foreign graduates choosing to purchase more from U.S. enterprises–including colleges and universities–than would otherwise have been the case) may partly offset the net subsidy (Blaug, 1981; Marris in Williams, Kenyon, and Williams, 1987). Foreign students engaged in graduate study may generate complementary research outputs that should be included. Alternatively, costs of foreign student enrollments extend beyond matters of finance to include faculty workload, curriculum, and "quality" issues (Hoenack, Weiler, Goodman, and Pierro, 1987).

With pressures on institutional budgets, three additional issues related to the financing of foreign students have surfaced. A number of institutions have levied special foreign student fees to recover the costs of providing services to these students. These fees take several forms, ranging from special application fees to fees for English language assessment programs to a more broadly based "service" fee for monitoring and reporting on the progress of students to their sponsors. Apart from the fiscal and legal propriety of such practices, differential charges may be difficult to sustain during periods when colleges and universities compete for foreign students to fill empty spaces in selected programs. Foreign students may be particularly attractive because, at the undergraduate level, most pay full tuition and, at the graduate level, many help staff labs and classrooms in programs unable to recruit domestic graduate assistants. Simply, with institutions or programs may absorb some of the incremental costs associated with foreign student enrollments to attract students who might otherwise enroll elsewhere. Information collected through interviews at several institutions enrolling large numbers of foreign students suggests that this form of implicit discounting may, indeed, be taking place.

As mentioned previously, foreign student training is increasingly provided as part of large international development assistance projects. While such an integrated approach has merit, it raises several important questions with respect to financing. How have institutions marshalled resources in order to accommodate groups of, as opposed to individual, students? Are there economies which may be passed on to the third-party payers? Do institutions have the flexibility to allocate resources quickly to allow programs to expand and to encourage increased faculty effort? The allocation of funds generated through large projects need not (and typically does not) follow the procedures used to allocate general operating funds. As a result, a quite different set of constraints and positive incentives may be put in place.

There is growing interest in the sources of student financing and their effect on student decisions (Wagner, Windham, Barber and King, 1988). Some two-thirds of all foreign students finance their studies privately with funds from their families or their own savings. Foreign undergraduates rely primarily on these private sources, while graduate students draw more frequently on support from home country governments, sponsors, and colleges. Theses patterns have not changed dramatically over the past decade. What has changed is foreign student use of domestic U.S. sources of financing. Since 1981, the number of foreign students financed by U.S. colleges and universities increased by about 13,000 (to 42,000 in 1985/1986). Perhaps 30 percent of all foreign graduate students receive some direct college-awarded support, a proportion that has probably doubled since the mid-1970's. From the institutions' perspective, the trend has been even more pronounced: foreign students now account for perhaps 10 percent of all college-awarded stipends, up from 2 percent in the mid-1970's. So, not only has support from U.S. colleges and universities become more important for foreign students, but the institutions themselves have allocated relatively more of their fellowship and assistantship support to foreign students. The issues raised by the increase have financial as well as academic dimensions.

Sponsors have seldom accounted for a large share of support for foreign students. In 1985/1986, about 4 percent of all foreign students (8 to 10 percent of graduate students) were supported by foreign and U.S. sponsors. Recipients of such support frequently receive awards covering all expenses (tuition, room, board, incidentals). Yet, given the variety of sources of support available for foreign students, it is surprising that donors have not made more partial awards, with the expectation that such other sources as the family, host college or university, or student borrowing would yield the balance. Such a strategy potentially allows limited donor funds to be spread among a larger number of recipients. The approach would, however, impose substantial new information and program coordination requirements.

In the future, the general policy trend in the United States will be to shift more costs to students and third-party payers. The policy problem is that these changes in treatment are preceding rather than following any analysis of the effects of these policies in terms of efficiency or equity criteria. As with most other issues of structure and content, there is a dramatic need for more systematic data and for more objective and detailed analysis. Without stronger data-based arguments concerning the true costs and benefits of foreign student participation, the political premises in this policy area are likely to become increasingly emotional and self-interested at the expense of reasoned judgment and an emphasis on equitable treatment.

D. Administration

While Weiler (1984) and others have discussed the issue of faculty adjustments (or the lack thereof) to foreign student needs, less professional attention has been directed to the issue of the administrative response to the presence of foreign students. Casual empiricism would suggest that the nature of this response is best assessed in terms of two dimensions. The first is the horizontal division of responsibility for foreign student concerns at the central institutional level of responsibility. The second is the degree of devolution of responsibility from central to school, department, and program levels of administration.

At the central administrative level, it is common among institutions with a significant number of foreign students to find a foreign student advisor or advisory office that is charged with the primary responsibility for coordinating the institution's administrative dealings with foreign students. Institutions differ in the degree to which this "primary" responsibility becomes almost "sole" responsibility. At one extreme, an institution may ignore a student's foreign status except in those special situations that inherently are a result of their foreign origin (e.g., visa status). All other administrative matters will require the foreign student to deal with the same set of diverse administrative offices as would be the case for domestic students.

At the opposite extreme would be the situation where matters such as housing, finances, advising, etc. are concentrated with the foreign student advisor. Such advisors have special training and experience in dealing with foreign students and the different character of their needs. The question is whether the advisors have sufficient expertise in each of the other administrative areas to assure that the foreign students receive equal access to institutional information and assistance. Also, the concentration of services and contact at foreign student offices can be seen as having a potentially segregating effect and of reducing the student's chance of gaining valuable experience from dealing with a variety of administrative offices.

The second dimension of institutional response concerns the degree to which the institution decentralizes responsibility for foreign student concerns. As was noted earlier, many departments and programs make their own decisions concerning foreign student admissions, especially at the graduate levels. Larger departments or programs (and sometimes schools) may have a faculty member who acts as a formal or informal foreign student advisor. Normally, the responsibilities that are decentralized are more likely to be related to academic or financing issues and will not relate to the legal responsibilities of the institution in regard to issues of visas or record keeping.

All institutions with foreign students will differ along these two dimensions in terms of the relative concentration of responsibilities among central administrative units and between the central administration and the lower administrative units. The need is for researchers to examine the relationship between these varying forms of administrative response and the effect in terms of student, faculty member, and administrator perspectives on the efficacy (and cost-effectiveness) of these alternative forms. The variation that presently exists is a natural experiment that can be used to inform policy. It well may be that such differences have little if any impact on the effective delivery of services or on institutional cost burdens. But, until a formal research effort is made, little assurance exits as to either the nature or importance of these administrative impacts.

E. Institutional Goals and Public Support

The ultimate impact of foreign student participation in American colleges and universities must be assessed based on the effect upon institutional goals and public support. Many institutions have justified the enrollment of foreign students in terms of the goal of internationalizing the curriculum and widening the experience of domestic students through contact with individuals from other nations. In recent years, the focus on internationalization has shifted from a national to a state emphasis within the United States (Jaschik, 1985). This is combined with new state and institutional emphases on area and ethnic studies. The goal of internationalization has both political and economic ramifications which generally are supportive of foreign student programs.

However, a countervailing force exists in the fiscal limitations faced by many higher education institutions. As funds for the instruction, research, and service functions of the institution become more scarce, there is an increasing pressure for accoutability. Ignoring possible xenophobic motives, there still are legitimate questions to be asked concerning whether foreign students displace American students (a charge heard frequently in regard to science and engineering programs) and whether funds used to support foreign students (including the implicit tuition subsidy discussed earlier) are used in a cost-effective manner. At a time when American higher education is attempting to respond to calls for reform (Kemmerer, 1986), it is only proper that institutional goals related to foreign student participation also come under scrutiny.

To an excessive extent, the present public support (financial as well as political) for international student participation in American higher education is passive and not founded on accurate and timely information on the educational, political, and economic impacts of these activities. It is not uncommon to hear an institutional or system administrator state a feeling of concern about the public reaction if "the public" knew of the number of foreign students or the subsidies and other costs that are encumbered in support of foreign students. In fact, it is not too strong to say there has been an implicit – and at times explicit – attempt to keep foreign student issues from becoming a topic of political debate at local and state levels.

One can sympathize with this view without endorsing it. In a time of neo-protectionist trade sentiments and of legislative calls for a more self-interested and isolationist orientation to foreign relations, there is a great opportunity for political posturing and demagoguery on the foreign student issue. However, the greatest danger to the institution is not from having questions raised, as inevitably they will be. Rather, the danger is in the lack of detailed information that supporters of foreign student participation have to justify both the benefits and to clarify the costs of such participation.

In fact, it is apparent to most public policy analysts that there is a widening gap between the importance of foreign student issues and the quality and appropriateness of the data and analyses with which analysts must work. In the United States, and throughout the OECD community, policy groups and educators have been meeting to debate these issues. Too often, however, such meetings have been restricted to, or dominated by, those agencies or individuals who have an immediate vested interest in the continuance of programs supporting foreign student participation in U.S. higher education. The present need is to improve the informational base and to widen the participation in the discussions so as to avoid or, if necessary, to counter a preemptive strike by opponents to such programs.

The two major requirements for meeting this need are the establishment of a more neutral source of data and analyses and for the development of a consensus or standard methodology for the calculation of foreign student impacts in terms of benefits and costs (both of these were major recommendations emerging from the OECD conference on foreign students held in Zoetermeer, the Netherlands, in 1985). The debate over public support for foreign student participation must recognize that there is no natural tendency for interests to converge among national, state, and local governments and agencies, taxpayers, educational institutions, instructional staff, domestic and foreign students, sponsors, sending nations, and the myriad of others with a stake in this debate. Therefore, it is necessary to structure a conceptual framework for analysis of the foreign student issue that will help identify the areas where congruence of interests may occur and, through expeditious means, to specify the cause and nature of the divergence in the interests of two or more groups. It is essential that the divergence of interests be analyzed in such a manner that the analysis goes beyond the easily quantifiable variables to touch upon the essence of the academic experience that is the ultimate justification for public support of any program or initiative in higher education. If this can be done, the debate over the role of foreign students will have been advanced as will many other domestic policy questions concerning the efficiency and equity of higher education access and attainment results.

In the section that follows, a conceptual framework based upon enhanced informational access and utilization of individual incentives and decision making is proposed as a means for structuring the future research and policy debate on the foreign student issue. Following that presentation, an initial list of priority research activities will be proposed as a means of implementing a more effective system of coordination of the interests of institutions, foreign students, and the other parties affected by the size and nature of foreign student participation in the United States higher education.

III. The Role for Information and Incentives

In attempting to improve the manner in which institutions determine or control the impact of foreign students, while maintaining consideration for the interests of the foreign students, their sponsors, sending nations, and the domestic taxpayers, it is necessary to accept the complexity of this educational situation as it exists (Windham, 1980). In developing a model of these educational processes, based on individual responses to perceived information and incentives, it also is necessary to accept that the same process probably will not be appropriate for all institutions and that the nature of the institutional program and of the foreign students it attracts (or seeks to attract) ultimately will determine the process structure to be implemented.

First, institutional planners must accept that, regardless of the range of their discretionary power, they never directly determine the outcomes of foreign student decisions. Instead, the planners only can set into action certain forces which they anticipate, or hope, will result in the desired outcomes. The outcomes themselves will result from the large number of individual decisions made, not just by the institutional staff and the foreign students, but by national and state legislators and administrators, personnel of the student sponsoring agencies, and officials of the home governments of the foreign students. Also, as Olivas (1983, 1986) has pointed out, the foreign student situation increasingly is being adjudicated in American courts to determine issues such as residency requirements, rights of access to public services, and immigration status.

If institutional administrators are to establish stronger control over the extent and nature of foreign student impacts on their institutions, they will have to do so through a greater control over the flow of information and the structuring of incentives for foreign students, their sponsors, and the program faculty. To do this requires an appreciation for the difference between information and incentives.

Information is defined as a set of data or facts which are used to inform a decision or choice. Traditionally, information has been studied in terms of three characteristics: appropriateness, accuracy, and timeliness. To these three, the management information specialist, reflecting the concerns of economists and administrators, has added the explicit consideration of information costs. Appropriateness describes the extent to which the available information is congruent with that which the decision maker should have. Accuracy relates to the extent to which the information reflects the reality of the underlying conditions or processes. Timeliness describes the degree to which information is available when the decision maker needs it.

None of these three characteristics has a degree of overriding importance. Often, the decision maker must resolve decisions based on information that is not fully appropriate, lacks total accuracy, and may not be as up-to-date or immediate as desired. This need to compromise on the first three characteristics of information is reinforced when one considers the fourth characteristic, information cost. Even if full appropriateness, accuracy, and timeliness are technically feasible, the acquired information may not lead to a cost-effective means of making a decision. The rule used is that common to all rational decision making: the cost of increasing the degree of appropriateness, accuracy, and/or timeliness must be offset by the *probable* benefit gained in the results of the decision making.

The term "probable" is stressed because the decision making should always be judged by how carefully the process is pursued rather than solely by the outcome. The outcome may well be determined by fully extraneous matters or may reveal that the decision maker's information was flawed in a manner that he or she could not ascertain.

Incentives represent inducements for the decision maker to act in a certain way. Incentives may be either purposeful or not; both positive and negative incentives may exist for foreign students that are not part of the institution's planned policy. The availability of information has an automatic incentive effect in that, to the extent it is known to be available, the foreign students can be assured they have a better chance of making the best decision about their choice of institution or field of study.

However, no incentive–planned or not–can have an effect unless it is perceived and understood by the foreign student or at least by those advising the foreign student. Thus, the institution must concern itself both with facilitating information flows and designing incentives that are recognizable and understandable to the foreign student. Information without a purposeful incentive structure leaves the institution in a passive and reactive stance. Incentives that exist without an effective flow of information will have no direct impact on the behavior of the foreign students.

While this general framework describes the roles of information and incentives in fostering improved control over the impact of foreign students at any institution, it should be kept in mind that individual programs differ markedly in the importance attached to the enrollment and training of foreign students, depending on whether foreign students are a minor, major, or primary justification for the program. These differences imply alternative contexts for the assessment of institutional impacts of foreign students. Similarly, the information and incentive requirements may differ according to the characteristics of students and of the institution's own administrative environment and structure. These, too, must be taken into account in any effort to determine or control the impact of foreign students.

IV. First Steps toward an Integrated Research Agenda

The focus on information and incentives usefully frames the questions to be addressed and the data required to respond to the questions. The measures and programs of foreign student participation in United States higher education institutions represents the net effects of choices made by all parties with an interest in foreign student training. Institutional planners, therefore, need to understand how information and incentives affect current choices and behaviors and which modifications in the information/incentive system would best lead to improved results for all parties. This larger approach to investigating identified issues accompanying foreign student training is most likely to yield findings which have significant potential for improving policy responses and institutional practices.

The effective information and incentive system must include considerations of the characteristics of students, of academic programs, and of the institutions' administrative environment and structure. Therefore, information must be developed on program experience in retention of, financial support for, and graduation of foreign students. Ideally, this information should be developed for each program and made available not only to prospective students and their advisors but also to sponsors, sending country government officials, and the U.S. public at large.

More broadly, information on various perspectives–student, administrator, faculty, sponsor, public official–on the perceived "success" of specific programs that accept foreign students also needs to be developed as well. Current and alternate incentive structures for all parties should also be concerned with developing and improving programs which adequately meet the interests of the students while addressing the concerns of faculty, sponsors, and the public.

Indeed, an appropriately-designed research initiative must begin from the position that institutional survival is a *derived*, rather than a primary, interest. Survival will, and should, depend on how well the institution serves the interests of the public and of students or their sponsors. The balance of these two interests determines the mix of public and private financing and, ultimately, the nature and scope of programs with foreign student participants. Framing the discussion in this way places the emphasis squarely where it belongs–on the interests of all those who benefit from, and pay for, the training of foreign students.

References

American Council on Education. *Foreign Students and Institutional Policy: Toward an Agenda for Action*. Washington, D.C.: 1982.

Baron, M. "The Relevance of U.S. Graduate Programs to Foreign Students from Developing Countries." Report prepared for the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, Washington, D.C., 1979.

Biggs, D.A. "The Relevance of International Education: A Cognitive Developmental Perspective." Paper prepared for the Annual Conference of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, Long Beach, California, 1987.

Dresch, S.P. "Economic Implications of Foreign Students in U.S. Colleges and Universities: Institutional and Public Policy Perspectives." Report prepared for the Institute of International Education, New York, New York, 1986.

Fry, G.S. "Economic and Political Impacts of Study Abroad," *Comparative Education Review* 28 (May 1984): 203-20.

Goodwin, C.D. and M. Nacht. *Absence of Decision: Foreign Students in American Colleges and Universities*. New York: Institute of International Education, 1983.

Greer, W.S. "Foreign Students: Boon or a 'Threat?" *New York Times*, March 27, 1983.

Hoenack, S.A., W.C. Weiler, R.D. Goodman, and D.J. Pierro. *A Study of the Marginal Costs and Internal Markets for Instruction in a Public Research University: Implications for the Financing of Foreign Enrollments*. Minneapolis, MN: Management Information Division, University of Minnesota, 1985.

Jaschik, S. "Seeking to Compete in World Economy, States Back International Education," *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, December 4, 1985.

Jenkins, H.M., and Associates. *Educating Students from Other Nations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1983.

Kemmerer, F. "Higher Education Reform: Recommendations for Research and Practice." In *Values in Conflict: Funding Priorities for Higher Education*, edited by M.P. McKeown and K. Alexander, pp. 261-81. Cambridge: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1986.

Olivas, M.A. "State Residency Requirements: Postsecondary Authorization and Regulation," *College Law Digest* 13 (1985): 157-76.

Olivas, M.A. "Plyer v. Doe, Toll v. Moreno, and Postsecondary Admissions: Undocumented Adults and 'Enduring Disability'," *Journal of Law and Education* 15 (Winter 1986): 19-55.

Rao, G.L. *Brain Drain and Foreign Students: A Study of the Attitudes and Intentions of Foreign Students in Australia, the U.S.A., Canada and France*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1979.

Throsdy, C.D. *Trade and Aid in Australian Post-Secondary Education*. Report prepared for the Development Studies Centre, Australian National University, Canberra, Australia, 1985.

To, D.L. *Estimating the Costs of A Bachelor's Degree: An Institutional Analysis*. Washington D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, 1987.

Wagner, A.P. "The Definition and Measurement of Participation, Cost, and Financing of Post-Compulsory Education and Training: Issues and Alternatives." Report prepared for the National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C., 1983.

Wagner, A.P. "Equity and Efficiency Issues in Differential Tuition Pricing." Paper presented at Conference on Undergraduate Differential Tuition Pricing, DePaul University, Chicago, 1985.

Wagner A.P., D.M. Windham, E. Barber and J. King. "Nonsponsored and Sponsored Students in U.S. Higher Education: The Association Between Sources of Support and Field of Study Decisions," Report prepared for the Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C., 1988.

Weiler, H.N. "The Political Dilemmas of Foreign Study." *Comparative Education Review* 28

(May 1984): 168-79.

Williams, P. "Britain's Full-Cost Policy for Overseas Students.": *Comparative Education Review* 28 (May 1984): 258-78.

Windham, D.M. "Micro-Educational Decisions As a Basis for Macro-Educational Planning." In *Educational Planning and Social Change*, edited by H.N. Weiler, pp. 107-21. Paris: Institute for International Educational Planning, 1980.

Windham, D.M. "Selected Issues in the Structure and Content of Foreign Student Study Programs." Paper prepared for the International Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students, Zoetermeer, the Netherlands, November, 1985.

Winkler, D.R. *The Economic Impacts of Foreign Students in the United States*. Los Angels: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1981.

Winkler, D.R. *The Fiscal Consequences of Foreign Students in Public Higher Education: A Case Study of California*. Los Angels: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1981.

6

SPECIFIC MEASURES AND PROGRAMMES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS: SOME LESSONS FROM BRITISH EXPERIENCE*

Maureen Woodhall**

Introduction

In considering the role and of specific measures and programmes for foreign students, in the context of the overall theme of this conference: the internationalisation of higher education, we need to ask at the outset why specific measures and programmes for foreign students are needed. The background paper produced by the OECD Secretariat defines "internationalisation of higher education" as a process by which the educational provision of a higher education system becomes "enriched and broadly applicable to students from *all* backgrounds and countries. Emphasis is placed on the development of programmes which are internationally and cross-culturally compatible, with a view toward providing *all* students with experiences and training necessary to develop skills for life in a world characterised by increasing international exchange."

It can be argued that if this objective is to be achieved then the very idea of "special programmes" for foreign students must be rejected since to treat foreign students as a distinct group, needing special treatment, weakens the idea of a higher education system catering for the needs of *all* students. The moment one group of students is singled out for special treatment, there is a danger that higher education systems may become fragmented rather than truly international. There is also a danger that "home students," (i.e. nationals of the host country) will not benefit from the internationalisation of higher education, if foreign students are educated in special programmes.

There is certainly a danger that "special programmes for foreign students" may sometimes lead to fragmentation, rather than the exchange of ideas and experiences on which a truly "international" higher education system should be based. On the other hand, students from different backgrounds and countries may have different needs, and to meet these needs satisfactorily may require a number of very specific programmes and measures. In this paper I shall argue therefore that no single set of specific measures and programmes will meet the needs of all foreign students, but that a number of different measures and programmes may be desirable, in order to meet the very diverse needs of different groups of students, from developed and developing countries, with different levels of academic and linguistic preparation and with very different expectations from studying in a foreign country. At the same time, it is important that these special programmes or measures should not foster the idea that foreign students must always be treated as a separate and distinct category, since this would lead not to the internationalisation of higher education, but to the development of what some writers have called "educational ghettos."

---

* Paper presented at the session of Working Group A.

** Senior Lecturer, University of London Institute of Education, United Kingdom.

For example, in a paper on the place of overseas students in the United Kingdom, Christopher Ball distinguishes between three different kinds of students who come from overseas to study in Britain:

1. Students who seek to learn or improve their knowledge of the English language. Such students do require special programmes, but they also need plenty of educational and social contact with British people if they are to gain maximum benefit from learning the language in Britain, rather than in their own country.

2. Students who come from overseas for specialist skills. "Such students, whose requirements are clearly defined, could well be educated in educational ghettos, because they do not want to waste time getting to grips with British culture. This is an important subset of overseas students, which of course leads to the idea that there should be special courses designed for them, perhaps special institutions, educational ghettos, set up for them, since contact with British culture is not what they come for or pay for."

3. Foreign students whose interest is more general. "These are the students who come to share the typical UK higher education experience. They want to experience what our home students appreciate, and there is no point in setting up special courses for them, as this immediately sets them apart. For many students the course is the social base of their experience, and special courses for overseas students in this third group produce a ghetto which is exactly what they do not want" (Ball 1987, p.55).

This suggests that attempts to develop specific measures and programmes for foreign students must first define clearly what are the main characteristics and objectives of the students whom they aim to serve. This is simply one aspect of the more general point which is emphasised in the background paper, that it is necessary to consider for whose sake measures and programmes are designed. As the Secretariat paper points out, the stakeholders include home and host country governments, institutions of higher education and those who teach in them, in both the host and the sending country, sponsors of foreign students and finally, the students themselves. We have already seen that the interests of the students may vary and the background paper reminds us that the interests of the stakeholders may well diverge. What may be most convenient for the host institution may not meet the real needs of foreign students or their sponsors. At the same time, there may be conflict between the needs of different groups of students, or between financial, educational and social objectives.

In this paper I examine specific measures and programmes for foreign students under the following headings:

i) financial measures, including fee levels and scholarship programmes or other forms of financial assistance
ii) recruitment of foreign students
iii) admission policies
iv) language preparation and training
v) structure and content of academic programmes
vi) teaching methods
vii) the award of degrees or other qualifications, including the possibility of credit transfer
viii) accommodation
ix) social and welfare facilities
x) assessment and evaluation of programmes and measures, including follow-up measures after the students have returned home.

The paper draws on research we have recently conducted at the Institute of Education in London on policies for overseas students in the UK. This research, was financed by the Department of Education and Science and by the Overseas Students Trust, whose recent publication, *The Next Steps: Overseas Student Policy into the 1990s* (Overseas Students Trust 1987) provides an overview of recent policy developments in the UK and proposals for the future, including a number of specific programmes and measures, some of which would require government action, while others would depend on higher education institutions.

Our research included a survey of 1,760 foreign students in universities, polytechnics and colleges in England and Wales and visits to over 30 institutions (Williams, Woodhall and O'Brien, 1986). This survey showed that there was a wide range of special programmes for foreign students in British institutions. Some have a long history, but others have been established in the last few years, often in response to the new situation faced by British institutions after the introduction of full-cost fees for overseas students in 1980.

There are also many organisations in Britain which run special programmes for foreign students. The United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs (UKCOSA) was established in 1968 as a national body to look after the needs and promote the interests of overseas students in the UK, and it provides information for foreign students, information and training for staff responsible for programmes for foreign students and a management consultancy service to institutions wishing to assess and improve their academic, administrative and welfare provision for overseas students. Recent activities include the preparation and publication of a model "Code of Practice" for institutions on "Responsible Recruitment," a review and recommendations on Language, Learning and Study Skills, and a manual on Orientation, which examines the need for pre-arrival and introductory information and programmes, and gives examples of "good practice."

The British Council operates a number of programmes, both in Britain and in some of the main sending countries, which have traditionally sent large numbers of students to Britain, including Malaysia, Hong Kong, and Singapore. The council administers most scholarship programmes financed by the British Government, and a number of the scholarships offered by international agencies and foreign sponsors. It also runs an Education Counselling Service, funded by subscriptions from British universities and polytechnics, which provides information and advice for prospective students and operates a variety of programmes to promote and market courses in British higher education.

The Overseas Students Trust (OST), which sponsored our research on foreign students in Britain, was established in 1961 as an educational charity to promote the education of overseas students in the UK. It has commissioned several research projects on the needs of foreign students, and is currently financing a study of accommodation for overseas students. The OST is also extremely active in promoting wide debate about overseas student policy and has published several major studies which include a number of proposals for specific measures and programmes for foreign students, many, although not all of which have been implemented (Reed, Hutton and Bazalgette 1978, Williams (Ed) 1981, Williams 1982, Overseas Students Trust 1987 and Williams, Kenyon and Williams 1987).

This paper draws on the experience of all these organisations in the UK as well as on the findings of our own survey. In drawing so heavily on British experience, I do not wish to suggest that there are any grounds for complacency in my own country. Indeed, I hope this conference can learn useful lessons from our failures, as well as our successes. Our survey revealed a generally high level of satisfaction with study in Britain; nearly 90 per cent of the students expressed satisfaction with their course of study, and 30 per cent said that they were "very satisfied." On the other hand, there were some disturbing findings from our survey. Nearly half of all the students said that they had experienced problems of loneliness and homesickness, a third had experienced financial problems and a third had language problems. Particularly disturbing was the fact that nearly a quarter felt they had been badly treated on grounds of race or nationality. This suggests that specific measures may be needed to ensure that foreign students feel welcome in their host country, and that feelings of loneliness, isolation, even of racial or ethnic discrimination, do not undermine the benefits of study abroad. Several of the examples I give later in this paper are designed to help overcome this problem.

First, however, I look at financial measures, including the question of fees, scholarships and other financial assistance, and at recruitment and admission policies. In all these areas, there have been considerable changes in the UK in the last decade.

Financial Measures

In the early 1960s, when the total number of students studying outside their own countries was still relatively small, Britain, like most other countries at that time, charged the same fees to all students in higher education, regardless of nationality. Foreign students, like home students, were heavily subsidised, and paid fees which represented a small proportion of the costs of their university education. As the numbers of foreign students grew, this was felt to be imposing an excessive burden on the British taxpayer, and differential fees for overseas students were first introduced in 1967. The fees were still substantially subsidised, however, and the number of foreign students continued to grow until in 1979 there were 88,000 foreign students, and the government estimated that the annual cost of the subsidy was £100 million. As part of its programme to reduce public expenditure, the government introduced full-cost fees for overseas students in 1980. Students from the

European Community continued to pay the same fees as British students, because of the terms of the Treaty of Rome, and those who had already enrolled were exempted, but all new students were required to pay fees which covered the average costs of tuition. This policy was heavily criticised, both at home and abroad, for the precipitate way in which it was announced, with no consultation with higher education institutions and, it was widely felt, with insufficient regard for long-term benefits of receiving overseas students, as opposed to the short-term financial considerations.

After a period of intensive lobbying, during which foreign governments applied diplomatic and commercial pressures, including a campaign in Malaysia in which the government urged people to "Buy British last," and after British politicians, academics and organisations involved in foreign students affairs had campaigned strongly for a change of policy, the government introduced in 1983 a programme of measures designed to assist foreign students to come to Britain. In announcing these measures, which were known as the "Pym Package," the Foreign Secretary, Mr. Francis Pym, stated the government's conclusion that "it is in the national interest, both in the short-term and in the longer-term, to provide more help to enable overseas students to come to this country." £46 million was made available, over three years, for a series of measures, including new scholarships, which were to be closely targeted on particular countries or specific groups of students. Since 1983 there have been further increases in scholarship funding, and the government has reaffirmed its commitment to a policy of selective, targeted support for specific groups of foreign students, rather than the indiscriminate subsidies that were available before 1980.

The specific scholarship and award schemes include:

i) Technical Cooperation Training Programme (TCTP), which is part of the Overseas Development Administration (ODA) aid programme, and provides scholarships for students from developing countries;

ii) ODA Shared Scholarship Scheme(ODASS), which involves shared funding by ODA and by universities and polytechnics; these awards are for students from the poorest countries in the Commonwealth;

iii) Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) Scholarships, which are intended to serve Britain's foreign policy objectives;

iv) Special programmes for students from Malaysia, Cyprus and Hong Kong;

v) Commonwealth Scholarships and Fellowship Plan;

vi) British Council Fellowships, which are intended to provide study opportunities for individuals "likely to be influential in their professions and to promote an enduring understanding and appreciation of Britain;"

vii) Overseas Research Students Awards Scheme;

viii) A number of bilateral agreements, including Fulbright scholarships for US-British exchanges, and the Sino-British Friendship Scholarship Scheme;

ix) Other programmes for students from specific countries, including China and South Africa;

x) Specific programmes for refugees.

These programmes are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: British Government-funded award schemes: number of awards and approximate expenditure

Scheme	Number of awards	Approximate expenditure (£m)		
	1984/1985	1984/85	1986/87	% change 1984/85 to 1986/87
Technical Cooperation Training Programme (TCTP)	10,323	48.9	59.3	+21
FCO Scholarships and Awards Scheme (FCO SAS)	617	3.0	3.8	+27
Country/Territory Support Schemes (Malaysia, Hong Kong, Cyprus and Dependent Territories)	2,848	4.7	4.7	0
Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (CSFP)	1,244	7.5	9.4	+25
British Council Fellowships	478	3.3	4.5	+36
Overseas Research Students Awards Scheme (ORSAS)	1,760	4.1	5.3	+29
Marshall Aid Commemoration Scholarships	72	0.74	0.8	+8
Fulbright Commission Scholarships	50	0.26	0.3	+15
World University Service refugee assistance	134	0.8	0.6	−25

Source : Overseas Students Trust 1987

These awards have very specific aims, such as to help students from the poorest developing countries, or to serve Britain's foreign policy interests. Many other countries have scholarship programmes to serve particular objectives. In the USA, for example, there has been emphasis on the need for "scholarship diplomacy" and special programmes have been created for Central and Latin America, and for developing countries. France has traditionally provided large numbers of scholarships for students in developing, particularly Franco-phone countries, but has recently increased scholarships for postgraduate students from industrialised countries, to encourage the exchange of ideas, particularly in science and technology.

We can see, therefore, a gradual shift in many countries towards more selective financial measures for foreign students. These include differential fees, which are charged in Australia, Belgium and Canada as well as the UK, and also selective scholarships which many countries provide for specific groups of students such as those from developing countries or postgraduates. In Britain, while there have been calls for a return to a policy of undifferentiated subsidies for all foreign students, the balance of opinion is that targeted support is more cost-effective. The Overseas Students Trust's report, *The Next Steps* concludes that "the absorption of the existing programmes into one undifferentiated scheme would not square with the fact that they were each started to meet a specific need. . . . British policy must be able to respond flexibly to changing priorities. . . . We believe therefore that there needs to continue to be a range of targeted award schemes, each with a separate, identifiable purpose, to meet the several objectives of overseas student policy" (OST 1987, pp 28 and 50).

The report goes on to identify additional objectives that could be met by specific scholarship programmes, including:

i) an Educational Purposes Awards Scheme, to enable institutions to award scholarships to meet purely educational, as opposed to financial, diplomatic or aid objectives;

ii) a Trade and Industry Award Scheme, specifically geared to the enhancement of Britain's long-term trading and commercial interests. "Criteria should be established for targeting awards to certain countries, for example those considered to be on the verge of industrial take-off. In order to help to maximise the potential commercial benefits of the investment, the scheme should provide for debriefing courses, follow -up and return visits" (OST 1987, p. 34).

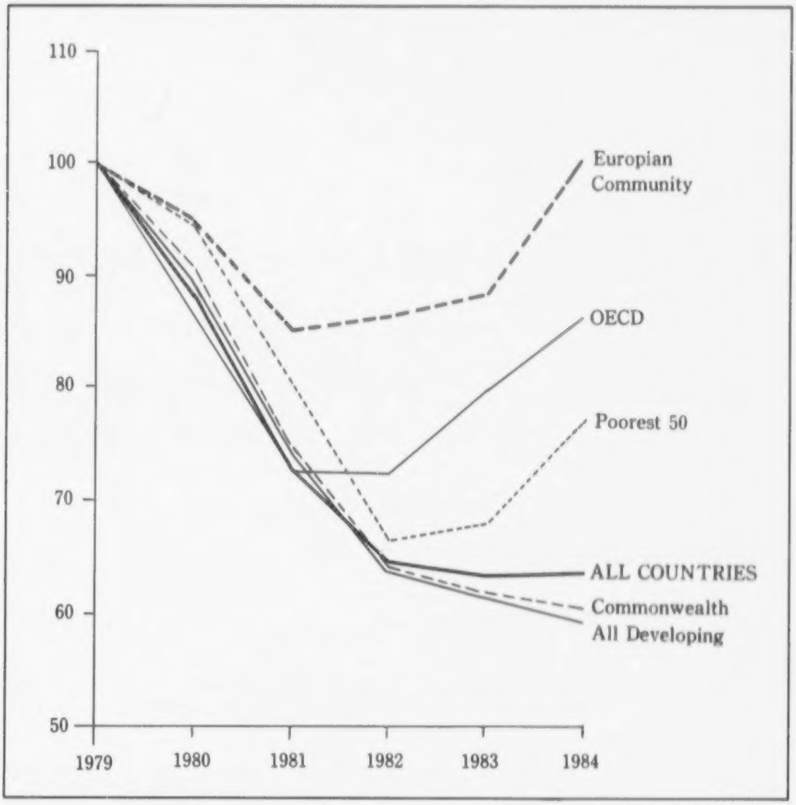
Finally, the report calls for an extension of the principle of shared funding, including both joint funding of awards by government and other donors, and part funding, in which the recipient of the award pays a share of the costs.

There are a number of lessons to be drawn concerning the impact of differential fees and selective scholarships for foreign students. The initial effect of the introduction of full-cost fees was a sharp decline in the number of foreign students, which fell from 88,000 in 1979 to 55,600 in 1983. However, since 1983, as a result of increases in scholarships and also more intensive marketing activities by universities and polytechnics, the numbers have risen steadily. In 1986 the total number of foreign students in Britain was 64,400 and the number in higher education, 56,000, was greater than in 1980. The number of students from developing countries has fallen much more rapidly than those from OECD countries, but the proportion of students from the poorest countries, who are more likely to receive targeted scholarships, is now higher than in 1980 (see Figure 1). Thus, a programme of selective scholarships can do much to overcome the disincentive of differential fees. On the other hand, the fact that there was a three-year gap between the introduction of full-cost fees and the increased expenditure on scholarships was extremely damaging to British interests.

Another lesson from our own survey is that there is a need for specific programmes for students who face financial hardship after arrival in a country. Students in our survey were particularly likely to suffer financial problems if they suffered delays in receiving money from abroad, which was very common among students from particular countries such as Nigeria. Students may also be affected by a sharp decline in the exchange rate of their own country's currency, as has happened recently in the case of students from Malaysia.

This suggests that financial programmes for foreign students need to be flexible. The OST report suggests that higher education institutions should play a larger part in the process of selection and granting of awards in order to increase flexibility, on the grounds that "institutions are well placed to assess the extent of individual students' financial needs. The amount of support needed will vary: one student will need only a marginal subsidy—topping-up as it were—the next, full support covering fees, travel and maintenance" (OST 1987, p 36). The OST report also recommends that in order to prevent bureaucratic delays the administration of scholarships should be linked more directly with the admissions process. While these recommendations were intended for the British context, the emphasis on flexibility and the need to avoid bureaucratic delays is of general relevance for financial measures for foreign students.

Figure 1: An index of overseas students in the United Kingdom, 1979 to 1984: changes in enrolments by country groupings (1979 = base year 100)



Recruitment of Foreign Students

The introduction of full-cost fees in Britain was followed by a considerable increase in recruitment and marketing activities, particularly by universities. Our survey showed that 70 per cent of universities and polytechnics had increased their recruitment activities between 1980 and 1985. All the institutions used advertising, and many of the universities we visited sent academic staff abroad for recruitment or promotional visits, and most had developed links with foreign universities. This growth of "entrepreneurial activity" in universities since the introduction of full-cost fees was one of the most striking findings of our survey. We also found that universities were more likely than polytechnics or colleges to organise promotional activities abroad.

This was due mainly to differences in the financial incentives to recruit foreign students. The way in which institutions were financed in 1985, when the survey was conducted, meant that universities could keep any fees paid by foreign students, whereas most polytechnics and colleges were required to transfer overseas student fee income to the Local Education Authorities which maintained them. The result was that universities made considerably greater efforts to recruit foreign students. Recent changes in methods of financing higher education mean that both universities and polytechnics can now keep fee income, so that at a time of increasing financial constraint there is a strong incentive to recruit fee-paying foreign students as a way of maintaining or increasing income. Some universities have been very successful in this regard, and some now rely heavily on income from foreign students. More than half the universities in our survey had introduced internal incentive schemes, since 1980, which encourage and reward departments for the recruitment of overseas fee-paying students.

One way in which universities and polytechnics have been able to increase their recruitment activity is by means of the British Council Education Counselling Service, established in 1984 with the help of funding from the "Pym Package." The scheme is financed through membership subscriptions by universities and polytechnics, and provides information and advice for prospective students in some of the main sending countries, including Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore. The British Council also offers English language instruction and testing in many sending countries. The OST report proposes that the Education Counselling Service should be expanded to other countries and there have been other proposals for increased British Council activity to promote recruitment. For example, Clare argues for access courses in sending countries, to enable foreign students to acquire the necessary entrance qualifications: "If overseas students will no longer come to Britain for their preparatory courses, British institutions, with British Council help, ought to be prepared to go to them, as the Australians have done in Singapore and Hong Kong" (Clare 1987, p 89).

The idea of institutions setting up preparatory courses in sending countries is one example of a trend towards "linked" or "split-site" courses which is discussed further below. Some of these represent new developments in course design, but some are clearly seen as a way of encouraging recruitment. Some courses involve links between existing institutions in the host and sending country; in other cases a university or college may set up a subsidiary college or campus in the sending country. A very recent example is the proposal for St. Catherine's College, Oxford, to set up a subsidiary college in Japan which would provide one-year preparatory courses for Japanese graduates, to be followed by postgraduate study in Oxford.

Such innovations have become more common recently, partly as a result of financial pressures which mean that recruitment of foreign students now offers significant financial benefits to host institutions. This has given rise to a fear that some institutions may indulge in "hard sell" techniques, without due attention to standards or to quality of provision. Because of such fears, UKCOSA has recently published a suggested Code of Practice for "Responsible Recruitment." This argues that: "Whatever an institution's size, location or level of study, the full value of an international dimension to the programme it offers can only be realised if a conscious commitment has been made to a comprehensive and coherent policy, and consistent and caring practices in the recruitment, reception and education of its overseas students. . . . Increasingly institutions sell education and training as a commodity to overseas students. It is both good business practice and a requirement of business ethics that value for money be provided" (UKCOSA, *Responsible Recruitment*).

This Code of Practice suggests twelve principles, such as:

i) Any institution which actively engages in recruiting overseas students should accept responsibility for the information and services it provides to such students and for any deficiencies in its provision.

ii) Active recruitment should be seen as part of an institution's work in international education and not as a separate activity.

UKCOSA also provides a list of 50 "Guidelines on Good Practice," covering such topics as pre-arrival information, access courses and language support. These are covered in greater detail in a new UKCOSA handbook on Orientation for Overseas Students, which gives many examples of good pre-arrival information and induction courses for foreign students. Our own survey stressed the importance of clear, accurate pre-arrival information. Students who reported that they had received sufficient and accurate information about their course of study, before arrival in Britain, were significantly less likely to experience financial or language problems than students who complained of lack of information. Those who received adequate information before arrival were also less likely to suffer problems of loneliness, homesickness or difficulty in "getting to know the British." The provision of information about study abroad, including costs, accommodation, food and cultural habits as well as course content is therefore a key to the successful integration of foreign students.

UKCOSA stresses that orientation should be seen as a continuum which extends beyond the recruitment and arrival period: "For both students and institution, the orientation process begins with the first contact between the two (perhaps when the prospective student asks for a prospectus) and continues for the duration of their relationship, up to and possibly beyond the student's return home." For this reason, successful orientation requires attention to, and possibly special programmes to deal with all the following stages:

i) recruitment and enrolment
ii) pre-arrival information
iii) arrival and induction
iv) support during period of study
v) preparation for return
vi) follow-up after return

Admission Policies

A key question is whether foreign students are expected to meet the same admissions criteria as home students. Some countries operate quotas to regulate admission of foreign students, particularly to the most popular institutions or courses. These quotas may take the form of limits, to restrict the number of foreign students, or targets or "reserved places" to encourage admission of students from particular countries. In Britain an informal quota system operated between 1977 and 1979, under which institutions were required to limit overseas student numbers, but it had very limited success, and since 1980, with the introduction of full-cost fees, there are no official quotas, with the exception of medical students, where a national limit on the number of overseas fee-paying students still operates. However, our survey found that some universities do operate their own system of targets or limits, particularly in the case of courses which are oversubscribed.

In Britain, the proportion of overseas applicants admitted to first degree courses in universities rose from 27% in 1980 to 36% in 1986. This led to fears that institutions were admitting under-qualified candidates, perhaps in response to financial pressures. All the universities in our survey denied any dilution of standards, although the increasing competition for a limited number of home student places meant that some foreign students might be admitted with slightly lower qualifications than home students. However universities stressed that foreign students must satisfy the minimum requirements for entry.

Even if foreign and home students are expected to satisfy the same minimum standards, there are two crucial questions. The first concerns the international equivalence of qualifications. As courses and qualifications proliferate it becomes increasingly difficult to define equivalences and many of the institutions in our survey reported increasing problems in assessing foreign qualifications. There have been occasional proposals for an international directory of equivalences, but apart from the problems of co-ordinating information of an international scale, the problem of keeping it up to date would seem insurmountable. However there are a number of recent developments which the OST report believes may "assist students and institutions in what otherwise might be an impenetrable jungle." In Europe the introduction of the ERASMUS programme (an acronym for the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students), which aims to increase substantially the number of students who spend a period of study in another European country, has increased the provision of information required to establish equivalences within Europe, and has led to the setting up of national centres, such as the National Academic Recognition Information Centre (NARIC) in the UK.

Another important development is the move towards credit transfer, with the creation of a new Credit Accumulation and Transfer Scheme by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) in Britain. This brings us to the second key question concerning admissions procedures, namely the flexibility with which institutions choose to operate admissions criteria. As the number of traditional students, i.e. 18 year old school leavers with the academic qualifications required for university entry, declines in the late 1980s and 1990s, many institutions are facing the need to increase the flexibility of admissions criteria, and introduce credit transfer or modular courses as a way of recruiting non-traditional, particularly mature students. This is likely to lead also to greater flexibility of admissions procedures for foreign students. The OST report recommends that "Higher education institutions, particularly the universities, should continue to develop quicker and more flexible admissions procedures. They should also be prepared to grant to certain overseas students partial exemptions from some course requirements, in the light of individual needs and experience" (OST 1987, p.41). Such a shift, however, would make it even more important for institutions to ensure that such students are given adequate academic support on arrival. For, in the words of a Director of an English polytechnic: "The admission of students is not primarily a commercial transaction. The admission of any student is primarily a contract to provide a service with an in-built implication that the contract can be realised successfully by the institution to the client's benefit. That implies that the admission of any student, whether from here or overseas, is based on academic criteria. Once an overseas student has been admitted, there is a contract to assist him or her to succeed in an alien environment, and this will cost time, effort and money" (Bethel 1985, pp. 14, 19).

Language Preparation and Training

Our survey showed that 34 per cent of all the foreign students interviewed reported language problems, and for 13 per cent this was their most serious problem. About a third of the students had attended a special course in English language or study skills before or during their main course of study and the majority reported that this was useful. 80 per cent of the institutions we surveyed provided some remedial language classes for foreign students. The length and type of language courses varied from one week to six months or longer, but many institutions reported that the take-up was low because students lack either the time or sufficient funds to meet additional fees.

The academic staff interviewed recognised that language difficulties present a major problem for some students, particularly when English is not their first language. Only 20 per cent of the students in the survey had English as their mother tongue. In addition to language difficulties, many students face problems with study skills or "learning styles." One problem mentioned by several tutors was that many foreign students expect to learn by memorising facts, and find great difficulty when expected to do independent research. Cultural differences between students may affect their attitudes towards authority, towards their teachers and towards other students. For example, even students who are fluent in English may find it difficult to engage in active discussions in seminars, because of cultural, rather than linguistic factors.

Given the wide range of language and study problems faced by foreign students there is a need for a wide range of pre-sessional and in-sessional courses. For example one university offers three types of course in its language centre:

i) specialist courses for specific disciplines (e.g., English for Electronic Engineers)
ii) more general courses for an group of disciplines (e.g., English for Social Scientists)
iii) courses dealing with a specific language skill (e.g., academic writing)

Some of these courses may also be valuable to British students. Specialised study skills, such as academic writing or note-taking may be unfamiliar to mature students as well as to foreign students, so that the provision of such courses may well represent one of the wider benefits of the "internationalisation of higher education."

Structure and Content of Academic Programmes

One of the striking effects of the introduction of full-cost fees for overseas students in Britain has been the development of new courses designed specially for foreign students. Some of these cater for students who do not have the qualifications for a traditional postgraduate course, such as a Master's degree or doctorate programme, but would benefit from a shorter course, such as a one-year postgraduate diploma. Some are designed for a specific group of students, and in some cases institutions may actually contract with a foreign government or employer to provide a "tailor-made" course designed to meet specific needs.

There has been a trend, too, at the postgraduate level, towards taught master's degrees, rather than the longer research degree, which requires original research which some overseas students find a lonely, isolated experience. Our survey in 1985 showed that more than a quarter of the overseas students were on taught postgraduate courses lasting for one or two years, whereas a survey in 1980, just before the introduction of full-cost fees, found only 17 per cent in such courses. There was also a shift in the subject balance, away from science and engineering courses, which charge considerably higher fees than arts and social studies, in favour of business, professional and vocational subjects.

A recent development, which is being encouraged by a number of sending countries, for example Malaysia, is towards "split-site" courses involving periods of study in both the sending and the host country. This development can not only reduce the costs of overseas study, but may also reduce problems of students' adjustments to an unfamiliar environment, and the dangers of courses which are irrelevant or unsuitable for their needs.

Closely linked with this trend is the development of greater possibilities for credit transfer or academic exchange programmes under which a period of study abroad can count towards an educational qualification in the student's own country. Our survey found that the majority of universities and polytechnics had some exchange programmes, most commonly with the USA or Europe. The ERASMUS programme is intended to lead to a considerable increase in such exchanges within the European Community, and the Commonwealth Secretariat has called for a growth of academic exchanges within the Commonwealth, including particularly, greater use of South-South exchanges between developing countries, and North-South exchanges, rather than the traditional South-North flows of students from developing countries to industrialised countries.

All these developments are leading towards greater flexibility in course structures and the OST report recommends a further shift in this direction: "Greater flexibility in course composition would help attract more students from overseas, particularly if part of the course were taken at home, since this would reduce the students' total outlay. . . . The expansion of modular first degrees, credit transfer and split -site research programmes should be encouraged" (OST 1987, pp.42,52).

Teaching Methods

The development of more flexible courses will require a reassessment of teaching methods. The traditional lecture may no longer be appropriate and a wide variety of teaching methods may be needed if students are to gain maximum benefit from modular degrees, or credit transfer arrangements. There is evidence that even within existing course structures some foreign students find adapting to unfamiliar teaching styles the most difficult part of the process of adjustment. A recent UKCOSA study on Language, Learning and Study Skills for Overseas Students notes that "The emphasis placed in the UK on private study and on academic debate in tutorials and seminars can seem very strange to students who have been used to learning by rote, to being "spoon-fed" information and to being differential towards their teachers and accepting their views uncritically" (UKCOSA 1988 b).

Our survey found that while 88 per cent of the overseas students were satisfied with the quality of their courses, the minority who expressed dissatisfaction were most likely to give "quality of teaching," "teaching methods" or "inadequate supervision" as the main source of their complaint. Teaching methods were mentioned more frequently than course content, or language difficulties, as a reason for finding a course unsatisfactory.

The UKCOSA study identifies a number of learning problems commonly encountered by foreign students, including:

i) not understanding lectures because of speed of delivery or accent;
ii) not understanding colloquial or idiomatic English and not recognising switches from the formal to the informal register;
iii) not understanding technical and subject-specific vocabulary;
iv) lack of confidence in seminar discussions;
v) lack of expertise in experimental or practical laboratory sessions, due to unfamiliarity with equipment etc.;
vi) inability to read quickly, in order to identify the main points of a book or article, combined with "excessive reverence for the printed word and excessive thoroughness in reading and summarising. Scanning and skimming for content and sense are unfamiliar practises for many";
vii) misunderstanding about the purpose of a reading list; students may believe it is necessary to read all the books listed or even to memorise parts of them, whereas teachers may give a very wide list and expect students to read only a selection;
viii) difficulties with writing essays or other assignments.

Clearly there is no single method of overcoming these problems, and many different techniques, which include use of audio-visual aids, circulation of summaries of the main points of a lecture, advance preparation, including circulation of essential readings in advance, may all help. It is worth emphasising that many of these changes in teaching methods are likely to help home students, as well as those from overseas. Many non-traditional students, including mature students returning to higher education, and part-time students, experience some of the same problems associated with unfamiliarity with traditional styles of teaching and learning. Thus one of the benefits of the internationalisation of higher education is likely to be that non-traditional home students, as well as foreign students, will gain from a reassessment of teaching methods.

The Award of Degrees or Other Qualifications

Many of the issues already discussed, such as the need to establish equivalences between different qualifications, the development of credit transfer opportunities, modular degrees and split-site courses all have implications for the award of degrees or other qualifications. Other problems include ensuring that a qualification obtained abroad qualifies students for work in their home country. Students who study abroad may find that they are required to sit additional examinations to qualify for professional practice in their own country, because foreign qualifications are not recognised by their own professional bodies. Many students who study abroad complain that employers do not understand the level of qualifications obtained abroad, particularly if these consist only of a certificate which provides no details about the range or content of courses completed. The trend towards modular degrees, continuous assessment rather than written examinations, and credit transfer may increase these problems in the future.

An interesting finding emerged from a follow-up study we recently conducted of students who had taken part in our 1985 survey and have now returned home. When asked about the value of their study in Britain, more than 80 per cent believed that they had obtained skills that would be useful in their jobs, and 75 per cent believed it had "helped them to do their jobs better," but less than half believed it had helped them to obtain a job or a promotion, and only a third believed that "employers are impressed by British qualifications." To the extent that this reflects a lack of knowledge or understanding on the part of the employers about the level or quality of foreign qualifications, this represents an obstacle to the internationalisation of higher education.

Another problem may arise as a result of differences in success and failure rates in different countries. In Britain the proportion of entrants to first-degree courses who successfully graduate is much higher than in some countries with less stringent selection. This raises the question of whether those who drop out of a course without completing or passing the final examination should be regarded as "failures" or "drop-outs." In some countries even one year of higher education is regarded as conferring some benefit, even if it does not lead to the award of a degree or diploma.

The problem of completion rates may be particularly severe in the case of postgraduate research degrees, which require the completion of a piece of original research, rather than the passing of an examination. This means that it is very difficult to predict the time required to obtain a doctorate, which increases the uncertainty and is likely to increase the costs of postgraduate study abroad. Some of these problems can be overcome by increasing the "taught" component of postgraduate degrees, and once again, this may well benefit home students, as well as foreign students.

Accommodation

After gaining admission to a course of study the first problem for the majority of students is to find suitable accommodation. For many foreign students this may be the most daunting problem, if they arrive in a new country with inadequate information about housing, particularly its costs. If, in addition, they are unfamiliar with the language and with cultural patterns in the host country, then the difficulty of finding suitable accommodation can be almost overwhelming. For this reason, special measures to help foreign students find accommodation are seen as the top priority in some institutions, and our own survey showed that of all the advisory services used by foreign students in British universities and polytechnics, accommodation officers were top of the list, and well above overseas student advisers or welfare officers, in terms of the frequency with which students used their services.

When asked about the problems facing overseas students, loneliness, homesickness, difficulty in getting to know British people, and financial problems were mentioned more frequently than accommodation. On the other hand, institutions frequently mentioned accommodation as the single most important problem for foreign students. Moreover it is likely that problems of loneliness and homesickness will be far greater if students live in isolated conditions, far from their university or college, either because of financial problems, or because they cannot find suitable accommodation. It is likely, therefore, that our survey underestimated the problems associated with accommodation, and for this reason the Overseas Students Trust has recently commissioned a detailed survey of overseas student housing, which will throw further light on the need for special measures for foreign students in this area.

There are a number of reasons why special measures may be needed. Foreign students may have special requirements because of religious, cultural or dietary needs. They may be totally unfamiliar with cold. Language problems or racial discrimination may mean that they face severe problems in obtaining private rented accommodation. Foreign students are often older than home students and may need accommodation for their families. In some cases foreign students arrive late in the academic year, when residential accommodation is full.

Because of such special difficulties, some British institutions provide special hostels or make other specific provision for foreign students, but demand for such housing usually exceeds supply, and some foreign students cannot afford to pay the charges for university or college hostels. Additional help, in the form of special advice from accommodation officers may also be needed.

Social and Welfare Facilities

The fact that loneliness and homesickness were reported as their most serious problem by nearly a third of the students in our survey suggests that there is a particular need for special social or welfare measures, to enable foreign students to feel at home in a strange environment. Many institutions appoint an overseas student advisor, and about half of all the institutions surveyed provide special orientation programmes for new overseas students.

Nevertheless, for many foreign students their first few days or weeks are dominated by feelings of loneliness or insecurity. UKCOSA recently organised an essay competition on the theme "Overseas students—At home in Britain?" and a young woman from Trinidad described her experience: "I felt torn apart. I was suddenly alone, bereft. Even the atmosphere sensed my utter despair for winter was beginning to creep in stealthily. There were days and nights when I stood at my window and looked out into the bleak horizon. I questioned my integrity in leaving my sunny little island to study in an alien land" (Jones in Bristow and Shotnes (Eds) 1987). Compare this with the reminiscences, in the same book, of a former overseas student who had benefitted from a variety of support structures when he arrived in Britain, some years ago: "First of all there was the support structure which allowed us to be met when we landed in what was to all of us a strange, foreign country. . . . We were provided with assistance to find accommodation at a price which was affordable. . . . A number of university students on vacation spent a day or so with groups of us, showing us how to get around in the city. . . . The college had instituted a system whereby students who were already familiar with the university would help us to get to know it quickly. . . . What we found most useful in helping us to overcome our feelings of loneliness was the opportunity to talk to other overseas students, and exchange news, information and ideas in general. But often the university lacked the facilities for us to meet and do this in a reasonably quiet atmosphere. In the USA, the International House was a valuable meeting place for overseas students" (Bacchus in Bristow and Shotnes 1987).

This suggests a number of different "support structures" that foreign students may value, but there is no single pattern that can be recommended to all types of institution. Our survey found many different programmes for overseas students, but it also found a number of colleges which made no special provisions. Some institutions make no distinction between home and foreign students, but provide a range of welfare services for all students, regardless of nationality.

Many staff stressed that while social and welfare services are important, it is the academic provision that is most important, and that most students—whether home or overseas—should go to their course tutor first, for help and advice. Research conducted for the OST, showed that for most foreign students it is their relationship with their academic tutors, rather than with social or welfare service officers, that determines the success of their study abroad (Reed, Hutton and Bazalgette 1987). This has been echoed by contributors to a recent UKCOSA conference, who stressed that "The proper focus of educational institutions is the learning process and teacher/student relations. Other relationships may well have to be taken into account but it remains the case that for most students 'welfare' is justified to the extent that it positively helps or minimises hindrances to the learning process; it is by definition then the responsibility of the *teachers*" (Fenwick and Moss 1985). Similarly, the latest OST report concluded that "provided there is a framework of supporting services, the relationship crucial to academic success must be that between tutor and student. . . . It is the academics' responsibility to see that the conditions are right for all students, whether home or overseas, to contribute as much to, and to take away as much from, the educational experience as is possible" (OST, 1987, p.43).

Nevertheless, the fact that foreign students are so far from home means that certain support services are particularly needed. In Britain, for example, organisations such as HOST (Hosting for Overseas Students) or the Victoria League for Commonwealth Friendship provide opportunities for foreign students to experience hospitality with British families, particularly in the vacations, and this may do much to minimise the feelings of loneliness and isolation that may otherwise spoil the experience of study abroad.

Assessment and Evaluation of Programmes and Measures

Finally, in searching for the most effective and productive ways of meeting the needs of foreign students we must look at the progress that has been made in assessing and evaluating programmes and policies. There has been considerable research in several countries on assessing the costs and benefits, both to host and sending countries, of student flows. Studies in Britain (Blaug, 1981 and Marris, 1987), Australia (Goldring Committee, 1984 and Throsby, 1987), and the USA (Solmon and Beddow, 1985 and Winkler, 1984) have attempted to identify and measure the costs and benefits, and have shown that there are a wide range of benefits to individual students, to institutions and to governments, but none of these cost-benefit studies has been able to quantify these benefits in a precise way.

Many institutions have attempted to assess their own programmes or measures, but often this is an informal, internal activity, and results are rarely published. Our own survey attempted to assess the impact of full-cost fees for overseas students in the UK, and showed that this policy, combined with the policy of targeted scholarships, has had some unexpected results. Our research also underlined the need to distinguish between short and long term effects. In the short term full-cost fees certainly led to a decline in student numbers, but in the longer term, there have been some unexpected shifts in the balance between different types of course and between sending countries. In terms of overall satisfaction with study in Britain, our survey produced some encouraging findings, such as the fact that over 80 per cent of students were either "satisfied" or "very satisfied," but there were also some disturbing findings, such as the prevalence of loneliness, homesickness and even experiences of racism.

We conducted a small follow-up study to examine students' evaluations of their course after they returned home. This, too was encouraging: the proportion of students who thought that their course represented "good value for money" was higher in the follow-up study (84%) than in the main study (74%), but it was impossible to tell whether this represented a genuine increase in satisfaction, or whether "satisfied customers" were more likely to return the questionnaires.

There have been other attempts to evaluate the experiences of foreign students after they return home. For example, a study of TCTP fellows, in 1984, used questionnaires to 3500 fellows who had completed courses in Britain to evaluate their study experiences (Williams 1985). The measures of "success" were the students' own assessments of the usefulness of their course of study, in terms of their country's development needs and their own future jobs, and their assessment of the personal value of their study in Britain. The result were very positive. Using a 10-point scale a score of 8-10 was given by 68 per cent of the Study Fellows for success in meeting their country's development needs, 73 per cent rated it very useful for their own jobs and 78 per cent gave a score of 8-10 for "personal value." There were some other interesting findings. Students were more likely to give a high rating if they had a chance to give their views on their training needs in advance, if they had received good pre-arrival information about the programme, and if they had opportunities for practical, as well as theoretical training. Finally, the links between perceptions of "usefulness" and "value" and students' social experiences was very clear. The study concluded that "it is dramatically clear that those who are dissatisfied with their social life as a student, with British attitudes to race relations, or with their accommodation, are far less likely to rate their courses as very successful in promoting development, then those who are satisfied on these matters" (Williams 1985, p.59).

This evaluation exercise shows that valuable lessons can be drawn from students' assessments of their course at the end of their period of study. For example, pre-arrival information about their course was clearly very important in determining students' sense of preparedness and satisfaction, but a quarter of all the TCTP Fellows had not received any information in advance, and half would have liked more information. Those with a poor command of English rated their courses low in terms of usefulness, which underlines the importance of adequate testing of English, and the provision of remedial courses.

Finally, the study pointed to the need for further follow-up of study fellows after their return home. Other studies have shown that foreign students may experience difficulties of re-integration after they return home. In the USA studies commissioned by NAFSA and the Institute of International Education, have shown the importance of developing links between institutions and former students after they return home. The title of one such study, "Fondness and Frustration," indicates the feelings of foreign students who return home, wishing to maintain links with their former institutions, and wishing to keep up to date in their professional field, but who lack the resources or opportunities to do so. The lesson from many evaluations of study abroad seems to be that what happens before and after the period of study may be vital in determining the value of the experience of studying in a foreign country, and determining whether it truly contributes to the internationalisation of higher education.

References

Ball, C. (1987) "The Place of Overseas Students in the United Kingdom Education System 1: Higher Education" in Shotnes, S. (Ed.) *Overseas Students: Destination UK?* London: UK Council for Overseas Student Affairs, (UKCOSA) pp.51-57.

Bethel, D. (1985) "Benefits for Institutions" in Shotnes, S (Ed.) *Overseas Students: Who Learns What?* London: UKCOSA pp 13-20.

Blaug, M. (1981) "The Economic Costs and Benefits of Overseas Students" in Williams, P. (Ed) 1981, *The Overseas Students Question*. London: Overseas Students Trust pp 47-90.

Bristow, R. and Shotnes. S. (Ed.) (1987) *Overseas Students: At Home in Britain?* London: UKCOSA.

Clare, D. (1987) "United Kingdom Policy on Overseas Students: A British Council Perspective" in Shotnes, S. (Ed.) *Overseas Students: Destination UK?* London: UKCOSA pp 84-90.

Fenwick, K. and Moss, C. (1985) "The Role of the Tutor—How far does welfare encroach on teaching?" in Shotnes, S. (Ed.) *The Teaching and Tutoring of Overseas Students* London: UKCOSA pp 13-16.

Goldring Committee (1984) *Mutual Advantage: Report of the Committee of Review of Private Overseas Student Policy*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Marris, R. (1987) "Assessing the Commercial Element in Overseas Student Policy" in Williams, G. et al (1987) *Readings in Overseas Student Policy*. London: Overseas Students Trust.

Overseas Students Trust (1987) *The Next Steps: Overseas Student Policy into the 1990s* London: Overseas Students Trust.

Reed, B., Hutton, J. and Bazalgette, J. (1978) *Freedom to Study: Requirements of Overseas Students in the UK* London: Overseas Students Trust.

Solmon, L.C. and Beddow, R. (1985) "Flows, Costs and Benefits of Foreign Students in the United States: Do We Have a Problem?" in Barber, E.G. (Ed, 1985) *Foreign Student Flows: Their Significance for American Higher Education*. New York: Institute of International Education, pp. 87-126.

Throsby, D. (1985) *Trade and Aid in Australian Post-Secondary Education* Australian National University Development Studies Centre Working Paper No 85/8 (Mimeo).

UKCOSA (No date) *Responsible Recruitment: A Model for a Code of Practice for Institutions Involved in the Education of Students from Overseas* London: UK Council for Overseas Student Affairs.

UKCOSA (1988) *Overseas Students: Language, Learning and Study Skills* (Mimeo).

Williams, P. (Ed) (1981) *The Overseas Student Question: Studies for a Policy* London: Heinemann for the Overseas Students Trust.

Williams, P. (1982) *A Policy for Overseas Students: Analysis, Options, Proposals* London: Overseas Students Trust.

Williams, P. (1985) *They Came To Train: A Study of Responses to their Training Experience of Study Fellows coming to Britain under the British Technical Cooperation Training Programme* London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

Williams, G., Woodhall, M. and O'Brien, U. (1986) *Overseas Students and their Place of Study: Report of a Survey* London Overseas Students Trust.

Williams, G., Keynon, M. and Williams, L., (Eds) (1987) *Readings in Overseas Students Policy* London: Overseas Students Trust.

Winkler, D. (1984) "The Cost and Benefits of Foreign Students in US Higher Education," *Journal of Public Policy* Vol4.2, pp.115-138.

7

SPECIFIC MEASURES AND PROGRAMMES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS: A VIEW FROM THE SENDING COUNTRY*

Klaus Schnitzer**

Preliminary Remark

The task of speaking in the voice of many sending countries, expressing their various needs and purposes, is presumptuous in many respects.

- first with respect to the role of the sending country as an autonomous partner of student exchange
- second with respect to the interrelation of sending and receiving, of demand and supply, of push and pull or however we want to call the two sides of the same problem, studying abroad
- and third with respect to the complexity of needs, measures and programs in the sending countries.

The first aspect is a warning, not to adopt a superior standpoint towards the expression of needs of the sending countries, the second rises the problem of analysis, and the third is meant to prevent us from quick generalizations in this field: the sending country does not exist. If our perception is not kept open, we will not perceive the changing nature of needs in the sending countries, we will not discern the fields of student exchange which grow better on an individual basis and those which need organization and aid. We will not notice that in many cases aid should even be cut back, as some of the sending countries are overcharged with the consequences of aid (victims of aid programs). Sticking to traditional views, we will not even realize that international education is no longer a two-partner business. It is obvious that economic development in the Third World is more and more dependent too on the will of international agencies. The educational policies of international banks and agencies have at least to be seen as a third power in shaping international education; there is a third stakeholder that changes streams and structure of international education, asking for a new network of exchange.

---

* Paper presented at the session of Working Group A.

** Deputy Head of Research Department, Hochschul-Informations-System, Federal Republic of Germany.

Development and the Need for Overseas Training

Speaking of a "sending country" this term makes us think at once in the category of rich and poor and in the historical tradition of cultural dependence. But if we look to the statistics of the leading nations of origin and destination of transnational student-flows, sending students abroad, is not only a function of underdevelopment in the home countries. Quite a few of the countries rank high in both lists, in the list of student exporting and importing countries and they belong to both groups, industrialized and non-industrialized countries, e.g., Canada and Western Germany rank high as sending and as host country. India, Philippines, Greece, Egypt etc. are important as host countries in their region, sending at the same time a great member of own students out for overseas education. If we measure national differences in relative terms then countries like Luxembourg, Cyprus, Lebanon and Greece rely heavily on other countries for their higher education for very obvious reasons.

Obviously the transnational streams of students do not follow only the economic fall between countries; there are other streams or—to be more exact—exchanges on a mutual basis, as it is the case with France and Germany. Exchange on a mutual basis is even a field of heaviest investment. The ERASMUS-Program of the European Community, which supports, channels and institutionalizes student exchanges between member countries develop this program of student mobility as an instrument of integration and also as an instrument of producing new qualifications: the ability of thinking and researching in multinational scientific communities or labour markets. What we have to learn from simple flow-statistics, is this: The theory that study abroad is primarily filling the gap in the development of the home educational system does not hold true, even not for the Third World. It is not a transitional measure which will be substituted gradually by home facilities of education. The nature of sending abroad changes, but its size and importance can even grow with development.

But here again one has to be careful: Although there is a historical dimension in the changing nature, there is no evolution in different stages, producing different types of dependence or exchange. At the same time and in the same country, we can observe different attitudes towards sending students abroad or abrupt changes in policy.

The variety and the coexistence of different sending policies make it difficult to find out general features explaining different types of sending, especially if we approach this problem by empirical cross national quantitative studies. In her Research Report on "Foreign students flows" Elinor Barber (1984) makes a comparison of results of three important surveys[1] which could contribute with their findings to our problem. As determinants of sending levels these three surveys trace three factors: *First,* lesser opportunities to purpose further education at home, as measured by the pressure of potential candidates on actual openings, was found to go with greater levels of sending. *Second,* greater per capita income was generally positively related to sending more students overseas. *Finally,* in each study language was found to affect sending levels. As E. Barber says: "These findings should occasion little surprise," the three factors represent the least common measure in a lot of functions, but they do not help a lot for solving them. We have to look closer to the individual role of sending countries, not only to understand the motives and mechanics of exchange, but also to find fields in common and—with respect to organization—to find fields which should be channeled by special networks. But once again. speaking of "sending countries" one should not take these two words too much in a literal sense. Many of the countries of origin seem to have no declared policy at all towards sending students abroad and others, who have, do not send, but make many students escape from their countries to host countries, forced by a restrictive policy.

Indifference towards Study Abroad

In his enquiry on "Study Abroad and Development Policy" John Oxenham, who studied the national development plans of ten developing countries, reviewing their special policy towards study abroad, makes clear, that study abroad is no good in itself, but a component and extension of home (educational) measures needed for social and economic development. The exception are very small countries which cannot afford their own university system, not only because they are poor like Malawi but also because of economics of scale (Luxembourg syndrome).

From my knowledge of some of these National Plans it is astonishing that Oxenham made finds at all. Very often even the existence of study abroad is not mentioned and countries seem to be *indifferent* to these possibilities of production of high qualified manpower outside their countries. If you take the case of Nepal: although still a good proportion of undergraduate training is done in India and, e.g., in the discipline of engineering nearly all the postgraduate training is carried out in India and abroad, there is no assessment of these outland functions. It seems that study abroad is mainly based on individual motives for higher and better (than home) higher education. It is true, the students send their application to all sponsoring institution, and if they are lucky they leave their country as sponsored students, if not, they try their chances on their own. In Germany we call the sponsored students "program-students" but I think from the perspective of the origin country very often they are only the lucky ones in a very haphazard sending system. And as there are no clear objectives and programs, the haphazard system is not the worst, neither from the point of view of the receiving nor from the point of view of the sending countries.

What is the reason that many of the sending countries officially keep up the appearance of being indifferent? First of all, it is a matter of prestige. On the way from dependence to self sufficiency in higher education, achievement in this process is measured in enrollment rates at home and not abroad. Second, overseas students and even those who have not returned after finishing their studies are seen as a very functional stock of manpower that can be called back when needed according to development. It is seen as a "quiet reserve" at quick disposal. This is why that no authority in the regarded countries expressed concern on wastage by brain-drain (Oxenham, 155). In a great number of developing countries they prefer to keep this pool as a sleeping reserve, as the output of the higher education system at home exceeds already the demand of the labour market or is growing faster for political reasons than the economic development. This is why many countries are not too sad when non-return rates are high. In case of need brain drain can still be turned to brain gain: E.g., in Indonesia last year a "mid-stream program," a reintegration -program for post-graduate overseas students, was invented. In South America several programs to encourage return are in operation (ICM, LARAP, TOKTEN). But these mobility programs are in reality pushed forward by host countries or international agencies and not by sending countries.

Third, developing countries start to reconsider the economic costs of foreign study. When marginal economic costs of foreign study are calculated—the increased costs of sending students overseas as compared to educating the student at home—very often it is forgotten that education abroad is a highly subventionalized market. Five years ago when Maliyamkono, who had successfully demonstrated by a survey, that the quality of East African Universities was as good as overseas training, tried to convince the President Njerere of Tanzania to give more priorities to home universities, the Leader only replied: "As good but more expensive!" He pointed out the free opportunities of scholarships offered by the industrialized countries and the possibility of self-funding in these host countries. Today, we observe even in the strictly regimented China overseas study program, informal tendencies, encouraging students, who want to stay longer than two years abroad to raise foreign funds by own initiatives. In this case the main aim is to reduce the operating costs for the program. In other developing countries the growing scarcity of public funds for education and excess demand for higher education is a fundamental problem which endagers the whole progress in educational development.

According to the policy report of the World Bank on "Financing Education in Developing countries" (1986) the cost explosion for higher education has not only curtailed the investment in the lower levels of education but has also to be assessed as a misallocation of resources, as the cost recovery in education is often higher at the primary level than at the higher level. As this is true especially for the African states the World Bank recommended only this year for Sub-Saharan Africa more or less a stop for further development in higher education. In diplomatic words they advice "modest consolidation of the tertiary sector instead of further expansion" of dubious relevance! Two African countries (Ivory Coast, Tanzania) adopted or had to adopt already this World Bank policy and raised requirements as a way to reduce enrollments. It needs no prophecy that more highly indebted countries will follow this subtle pressure of the World Bank policy. With the consequence that "overflow effects" will grow and more students will try to study abroad.

There seems to be a moral obligation for host countries to provide these students with grants and scholarships. But in the recommendation No 7 of the World Bank donor countries are blamed exactly for this reaction: "In view of current African needs the imbalance of aid has supported technical assistance and overseas fellowships at the expense of other forms of recurrent expenditures." If we have spoken until now on sending countries who take an indifferent attitude towards overseas studies, we must learn that this indifference is very often an expression of political dilemma and of goal-conflict. External aid in form of overseas fellowships can be even contraceptive for development. Donor countries are part of this conflict. They should reflect with the sending country more on their forms of aid. And even if it is easier and even if the sending countries seem to have no special objective, for this type of sending country country-specific educational development programs should be designed instead of strengthening general fellowship programs.

Foreign Study as a (Necessary) Evil

Discussing sending country perspectives one should assume that at least some of the developing countries should follow a policy of preventing study abroad. It is quite paradoxical that discussions relating to the negative implications of foreign study, such as the "westernization" or cultural dependence, the general accusation that what is given is unsuitalbe or even detrimental because technologies are labour-saving and capital-intensive, are more popular among the donor countries than among the developing countries. Apart from more or less historical examples of an overall state isolation—during the Cultural Revolution in China, still in Albania, until 1920 in Nepal, still in Bhutan, at reduced scale in the Khomeini regime—there is no country that tries to cut off radically study abroad by deliberate policy.

If foreign study is seen as an evil, it is seen as a necessary evil. Measures taken against it, are partial or transitory: To everybody known are the shifts in policy in China. Before the Cultural Revolution, China sent large number of students to Russia. Then it turned inward and now since a couple of years China is sending big contingents of students to the most advanced industrialized countries. The same shifts of policy can be noticed in other Asian and African countries which (Tanzania, Indonesia). India, being nearly self-sufficient in many disciplines of higher education, tries to regulate the stream of students going abroad by a restrictive policy, placing scholarships only for specialized fields and levels and preventing self-sponsored students from going by restricting foreign exchange of money. In Malay-cultures as in Malaysia and Indonesia the Chinese minorities were hindered to enjoy higher education at all. No enrollment in state universities and high fees in private institutions were counter-measure at home, visa difficulties and foreign exchange restrictions were those abroad. As career prospect seemed to be better abroad, most of the students tried everything to enroll in a foreign university. By this, a restrictive policy really turned the tables: an exodus started to the Netherlands, W-Germany, Great Britain and USA.

In this context we have to mention also the streams of refugees and asylants which constitute a big proportion of the transnational student flows. These side effects of national conflicts—we have to think of Chile, Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, Iran and if my country is considered as a host country, quite recently of Poland and Roumania—are by no means supported by home policies. Negative attitudes toward sending students abroad can also be noticed within different groups or forces of sending countries. Especially the fundamental movement in Islam societies condemns study in western universities. Less militant are certain groups of politics, educational planners and academics, who argue in the controversy on the economic costs of their own institutions by stating that even if the production costs of training abroad are lower, funds invested and resources used for training at home can be used elsewhere too. According to these opportunity costs, the benefits of home training—they say—are greater. These critical voices (Maliyamkono and others) will find less open ears in the future as many of these countries, have economies overheated by foreign borrowing. Probably both will be declining in the future: sending abroad in own programs and training at home.

Positive Policies and New Structures of Need

What are now the needs of those developing countries that express actively a positive demand of foreign study? As Oxenham found out in his enquiry, there is a standard answer stating three large purposes:

- Gap-filling, that means to supply identified deficiencies of expertise through obtaining training at established foreign countries.
- Quality improvement of manpower already in place through forms of in-service training conducted abroad.
- Access to advanced technologies.

Apart from the first purpose of gap filling, which is a general push factor of all sending countries, the two others are goals which apply less for LDC and more for the advanced countries of the Third World. The group of those countries, which are already richer in basic educational provision and economic growth, include most of the South American countries, few of Africa and many of the countries of the Far and Near East Asia. We have to think for example of countries like Brazil, Mexico, Nigeria, Kenya, Turkey, Syria, India, Thailand, Indonesia, Philippines, Korea, Taiwan and People's Republic of China. Any of these countries has its own reason of advance or of temporary economic recession by debtor's problems. There is no use in defining this group by GNP per capita or other indicators. They are those countries which *expect* economic growth in the years ahead and therefore strengthen their efforts of sending expanded numbers of students abroad as a prerequisite of economic development. If we ask like E. Barber did, where might new, or more growth come from in the future, then we have to think of this type of developing country. This corresponds with the finding that there is a positive influence of a nation's level of economic development on its tendency to send students abroad. This explains why there is an ever-expanding and not a self-satiating demand of foreign study exchange.

More important than quantitative projections are changes in the nature of demand of foreign studies. Coming back to the three mentioned push factors they do not sufficiently explain the *new quality* of demand nor the differences. If one takes for example the gap filling function this goal proves right only in a limited sense. At undergraduate level nearly all of the mentioned countries are self-sufficient, even in lab and technical sciences; in many of these countries the supply of highly qualified manpower is higher than the demand. The expansion of the low level of the system of higher education can be managed more and more by own forces, by the existing teaching staff and young professors, produced in the country. There are even some risks in such a self-reliant development, as the development of the higher education system is conducted by a spreading effect mainly in a horizontal and less in a vertical line. If we look to the numbers of teaching-staff at different level, e.g., in Indonesia, we find a very disproportional pyramid of levels (80% with Bachelor degree or lower, 15% with Master degree, 6% with Ph.D.).

The Second Phase

These countries do not face simple growth, but a second phase in educational development: the upgrading of the staff and the upgrading of the whole educational system. But for this "qualitative jump" or "qualification offensive" ignition help is wanted from outside. This ignition function is expected from the young teachers which are sent abroad, e.g., by China or Indonesia to nearly all industrialized countries.

The same tendencies as in higher education can be observed in the R & D - sector of these countries. Indonesia, e.g., is about to train a quarter of its 6000 researchers, working in the technological state research centers, abroad; that means a demand of 3200 manpower abroad within 5 years, only in the dominion of the Ministry of Technology. Other sectors are preparing their own "second phase offensive."

With regard to the organization of these upgrading programs we have to realize that they are neither left any more to the mercy of the host-country (placement) nor to the free decision of individuals. As it can be learned from the Second University Development Project and Overseas Fellowship-Program in Indonesia such programs follow strategic planning, e.g., the Ministry of Technology has rather deliberate criteria according to the

- level and length of study
- degree wanted
- specializations wanted

- shopfloor experience wanted
- the institutions chosen
- the function of the acquired-knowledge (frog-leaping development, technology-choice)
- the multiplier effects after return in centers of excellence
- the efficiency of further education in the different host-countries

It is quite apparent that this new type of overseas training produces a new type of overseas student. These young academics with first professional experiences need goal-oriented in-service and in-career training, providing them with a higher degree, better theoretical knowledge and shopfloor application of the knowledge, all of it within a one to three years period and all with a clear professional perspectives for a waiting position. The WUS of Canada, who is preparing a Post-Return Evaluation Project for the Canada/China Human Development projects (updating of skills for up to 385 Chinese in key development positions), worked out a "trainee profile," which corresponds very much with the characteristics which is given here for the new type of overseas student. This WUS's observations are very interesting for this discussion because they show too the impact of this learning-need profile on the learning programs expected from the host-country:

> Thus the work of arranging a learning program to fit each individual's learning needs is a "job shop operation and not a production line." They recommend a "performance based training" as the desired results are clear and all aspects of learning tasks and environment, where they are to be performed, are examined.

It is not the task of this paper to show how these principles of *performance based* training can be applied in the host countries. This paper only wants to indicate that there is a new quality of need emerging among the set of the traditional needs, which still exist in all the sending countries.

Upgrading, high-tech strategy, performance based training, in-career training are key words, which describe the character of post-graduate programs of excellence. This quality approach is a new challenge for the donor countries and agencies, not only with regard to organization costs, need analyses, training design and counselling but also with respect to the concept of knowledge-transfer. The access to the technologies of the most advanced countries is neither attempted to gain by a short term expert training focusing on special solutions, which will be slavishly copied, nor in general pre-career, post-graduate programs, which require full integration in host country study-life. Not the adaptation of technology is aimed at, but the faculty of making a choice between different technological ways and solutions by having in mind the technological environment of the home-country. This aim explains too, why the new programs are spread over many host countries. The multinational distribution of the fellows is done by deliberate purpose in order to improve the ability to choose between different ways and to decrease technological mono-dependence.

As there are many analyses on the problem of technology-transfer there is no need to enter *this* discussion here. Instead, the attention should drawn to an aspect which is connected with it and which reveals that in this process sending countries are also gaining a *new role* in the relation to the donor country. The old concept of one donor country offering help and aid to various sending country holds not true any more as far as the various post-graduate programs of excellence are considered. The donor country is no donor of grants, the sending country is no petitioner but a client asking world-wide for the best offer, selecting among offered opportunities, formulating the program-criteria and paying for the service. Although in most cases the funds invested by the sending countries in overseas programs are loans of the international banks, the sending countries are nevertheless put in the position to be selective among countries or institutions and to follow their intended strategy of selective expansion.

How do host countries react to this change of role of the sending country? In my country the DAAD (The German Academic Exchange Office) and the GTZ (German Agency for Technical Cooperation) have opened small profit-centers which try to win a share of these world-wide programs and to organize the placement of the trainees. But still it is an unusual task for a donor agency. Also politics, academics and administrators in the host countries find it hard and do not want to accept it that there is a change of role in the business of international education.

Program-Evaluation

This is not the only reason that there is not much transparency in this growth-sector of international education. As far as this new type of student-exchange is concerned the whole structure of assistance has changed and new ways of dealing with each other have to be found. Until now host countries suppress information to other host countries as they are competitors for a bigger share of the program and sending countries as well—e.g., China—do not lay open their interests for different countries, in order to bargain for better prices and conditions. This is a very dissatisfactory situation; dissatisfactory far all three stakeholders and not adequate to the importance of the problem. Therefore this paper will close with some ideas on necessary information-structures which support the implementation of these upgrading programs and which correspond with the new balance of power between sending countries, host countries and international aid agencies which give concessionary loans.

First of all the informations needed should be program-oriented and neither focussed only to some of the host-countries (e.g., the Chinese trainees in Canada) nor merged with different programs of other sending countries. The information should at least be circulated among the countries concerned by the program; but even better among the institutions involved, at home and in the host countries. ERASMUS-program in Europe is a good example for a network of institutions which have decided to take part in an exchange program and which develop a real membership-feeling.

On what aspects informations are needed? Quite obviously: on the demand, on the performance and on the results of these upgrading programs. The demand-profile could be rather brief, giving the size, time-horizon, objectives, potential host countries of the program and describing the professional background and deficits of the candidates. Very often this profile exists already, but only does not circulate among the host countries. More detailed evaluation information can be gained from the monitoring of the running performance of the program. WUS of Canada points out that the trainee's periodic and end-of-stay reports, the host supervisor's periodic and final reports and the working papers of the program officers have a good evaluation potential. Philip Adey from King's College London, having been in charge of the Indonesian OFP-evaluation, points out that tutor-reports are an important supplement to the fellow-reports, helping very much to make a mid-term evaluation. Only the rate of return of answers is disappointingly low, especially from countries which have no tutorial tradition: Therefore Philip Adey recommends that tutor reports should focus only to the academic progress, basing on fellow's report, signed by someone in authority. The main function of built-in evaluation is to ring alarm bells if there are problems threatening the progress of the program. The efficiency of the program, however, cannot be assessed by mid-term evaluation.

The only way to assess the impact, relevance and success of the programs is to follow up the experiences back on the job at home. Such post-return evaluations are very delicate instruments. Most of the tracer studies are wasted efforts as the returnees, interviewed at home, constitute most times a very mixed population (in a statistical sense). There is a mix of needs, of age-groups, of years of return of sponsored and non sponsored students. By this it is impossible to define the expected results of training and compare them with the outcome. Somebody called this game "chasing eternally elusive rabbits." Only in specific-oriented programs we find a rather homogeneous setting and out-spelled objectives that allow to determine cause/effect relationships in training.

As the trainee has to spend some time on his job at home before he can realize that the training has a significant effect on his career, the timing of a post-return study is a very delicate problem. One is confronted with the dilemma that evaluation either comes too late with regard to the feed backs to the program or too early with regard to home experiences. About one year after return seems to be a sound compromise for the point of time of a post-return evaluation.

Considering the different examples of post-return questionnaires, the elements of such a post-return evaluation seem to be rather similar and not questionable. The main purpose of post-return evaluation is always to find out

- whether the training was adequate to the trainees' and their units' needs,
- whether there was a multiplier effect.

For these two dimensions expected results can be defined; for each of these objectives one can identify fairly objective and measurable criteria of success or failure. The list of indicators, suggested by the WUS Canada/China Post-Return-Evaluation Project is, e.g., applicable for the same Program in other host-countries and for other up-grading programs, too.

With regard to the evaluation-strategy there is also a consensus that usefulness of the training must be discussed with both, the trainee *and* the unit leader, in order to find out if work environment or personal ability is affecting the use of transferred skills. Finally, as information is wanted on the general effectiveness, we do not need a case by case report, but only a representative sample of the program.

As a result one might say: Not the method, but the procedure makes the problem. The main problem, that of evaluating trainees after return from many host countries, can be accounted for by the lack of coordination and the inability of partners to agree upon the same procedure. It does no require any centralization nor extra-funds, but substantial and continuing input from at least one of the partner-institutions, willing to engage in this assessment-activity and willing to act as a trustee to the others. For the sake of implementation in practice we should make any compromise even if the evaluation is not so elaborate as we want it. The day-to-day information for the management of the training can be left to the concern of the single host-country. What is necessary for all, is a post-return evaluation in a broader sense, assessing whether or not the program is reaching its goals. Only this fulfills a general function which is needed basically by all of the parties engaged in this network of demand oriented up-grading, radiating from one sending country to many host countries. As the individual learning situation very often asks for a catalyst to bring together the trainee's need and the trainer's offer, perhaps the sending and host countries need a catalyst institution too, which helps to coordinate post-return evaluation and—by this—helps to stabilize the new emerging networks of overseas training.

Note

1. Winkler/Agarwal (1982), Lee/Tan (1983) and Cummings (1984).

8

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSES TO SOCIO-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT: PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN JAPAN[*]

Asako Uehara[**]
Joe Hicks[***]

1. Introduction

1) Background and Objectives

When students cross a national boundary to study in a different culture, they are usually full of ambition. They think that experiencing an unfamiliar culture will be a great challenge to them in terms of broadening their perspectives, enhancing their personal growth and so forth. Those who promote foreign student education in the world also have, we believe, a strong conviction that face-to-face encounters between foreign students and host nationals will help to facilitate international and intercultural understanding for both foreign students and host nationals as well, and that such understanding is critically important for today's world where people must peacefully coexist with persons of enormously differing cultural backgrounds.

Indeed, exposure to unfamiliar cultures is beneficial both in the case of foreign students and their hosts alike. In addition to the educational and extra-curricular gains, new perspectives, personality growth and insight into one's own culture are positive by-products. Therefore, foreign student education has been promoted in various countries on the grounds that it should result in greater mutual understanding between individuals and better international relations. There is certainly evidence documenting that culture contact can have beneficial effect on those participating in it (Brislin 1981; Gudykunst and Kim, 1984; Hall, 1976; Uehara 1986).

---

[*] Paper presented at the session of Working Group B.

[**] Associate Professor, Hiroshima University, Japan.

[***] Research Associate, Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, Japan.

On the other hand, there is a greater deal of evidence that exposure to an unfamiliar culture is a stress laden experience which is very uncomfortable to the individuals exposed. Unfamiliar environments often produce anxiety, confusion, depression and isolation in the individuals involved rather than creating better mutual understanding. Culture contact frequently leads to hostility or poor interpersonal relations among those involved. In extreme cases physical symptoms or illness may be an outcome of experiencing unfamiliar culture. The terms culture shock, culture fatigue, culture strain, maladjustment and others are used to refer to the negative consequences of culture contact (see Church, 1982; Hoshino, 1980, for literature reviews on the concept of sojourner adjustment and culture shock).

We think that the negative outcomes of foreign students' culture contact experience can be partially reconciled by effective guidance and orientation to the new environment at the appropriate times during the sojourn. Our emphasis on establishing such kinds of programs is based on research by social psychologists (Janis, 1958 and Brislin, 1974) who approach the problem theoretically as follows: "When people prepare for unpleasant, aversive events that could occur in the future, the impact of those aversive events is much less severe than if the people did not prepare" (from Brislin, 1974). In addition to the orientation program, we emphasize the importance of the social support system of foreign students through which they can learn cultural characteristics of the country where they sojourn (Furnham and Bochner, 1986).

The objectives of this presentation are threefold. The first objective is to describe some of the major difficulties foreign students in Japan are facing during the sojourn. The second objective is to discuss how national universities in Japan are institutionally responding to foreign students' needs and problems. The final objective is to discuss a few suggestions for possible future innovation in responding to adjustment problems of foreign students in national universities in Japan.

2) Definition of Important Terms

The term "foreign students" is defined as those students who are studying in a country foreign to their own but who will return to their home countries after completion of academic work in the host country. Their stay in the host country varies tremendously from a few months (e.g., participation in a summer study abroad program) to six or seven years (or even longer). However, they are not immigrants. From the perspective of cultural adjustment they are not expected to make a total commitment to the new (host) society.

A number of researchers have written about adjustment to a foreign country. However, the term "adjustment" has been used very ambiguously (Church, 1982).

Brislin (1981), who considers that adjustment to another culture is dependent upon people's traits and skills, states that the definition of adjustment includes the core elements of people's satisfaction, perceived acceptance by hosts, and ability to function during everyday activities without severe stress.

Brein and David (1971) think that adjustment is dependent upon the development of understanding between a sojourner and his or hers host and is a function of effective intercultural communication which occurs between the sojourner and the host.

Kobayashi (1981) points out the following four conditions as important for school children's adjustment abroad: (a) to get accustomed to daily life in the particular culture, physically and psychologically, (b) to make friends there, (c) to get accustomed to the native school environment, and (d) to catch up on class work.

Concerning the term "adjustment," researchers are concerned about a sojourner's physical, psychological and functional aspects. Therefore, we consider that, for foreign students, the most important attributes to adjustment to a foreign culture are a) to get accustomed to the new environment physically and psychologically, b) to perceive acceptance by hosts, and c) to be able to function effectively in everyday activities without severe strain. For their adjustment process to a new culture, we are concerned about their physical and psychological well-being and functional aspects rather than their behavioral change itself in the new environment. In other words, we expect foreign students to make an "instrumental adjustment."

According to Brislin (1981), "people who use instrumental adaptation have clear goals concerning tasks to be accomplished (in the host culture, . . .). Any change sojourners make in their typical ways of behaving are designed to serve their needs or, more specifically, to be instrumental in task accomplishment." (p.273)

By the term "instrumental adjustment," we mean that we do not expect foreign students to accept the entire repertoire of host cultural behaviors and discard their own. Rather, we assume that, with their limited duration of stay abroad, most of them are likely to achieve this level of adjustment to the foreign culture.

3) A Theoretical and Practical Approach

In order for foreign students to attain an instrumental level of adjustment, we need to develop guidance and orientation programs capable of teaching them the host culture as well as the host university culture without undermining their own cultures or value systems. Thus, we need to devise programs through which foreign students can learn salient cultural characteristics of the host country without losing their own cultural identities.

A promising approach seems to be a combination of an improved orientation together with two kinds of support systems, 1) host country member based support system and 2) co-national or other foreign student based support system. The combined support from this approach could provide methods and means to handle three major causes of cross-cultural conflict that students often encounter. Firstly, practical daily problems such as insufficient housing, troublesome procedures such as filling out forms and opening bank accounts, registering for courses and obtaining scholarship loans, could be greatly helped by the orientation and by the host support system.

Secondly, considerable stress comes from grappling with unfamiliar ways of social interaction with host country members which often results in mutual distrust and hostility between foreign students and host country members. The major tasks foreign students face in dealing with these kinds of problems is not to adjust themselves completely to the new culture, but to learn its special characteristics. For this purpose, we suggest an active approach with host nationals serving as culture friends and informal trainers. This will provide not only cognitive learning but also active experience, doing things with host nationals.

Furthermore, a prerequisite for successful intercultural contact is that both parties must learn the others' culture. From the perspective of our approach, most foreign students struggling in the new cultural settings should not be considered failures who are unable to cope with cross-cultural experiences, but should be looked at as persons who are lacking or inadequate in the social skills of the new society. Various kinds of cross-cultural orientation programs can provide them with necessary social skills which they could utilize for their everyday activities in the new environment.

A third problem is the loneliness and psychological discomfort that comes from being uprooted from one's own culture. Other foreign students or the co-national network provide important help and support here.

Orientation and other support programs should be administered before departure and during the sojourn, particularly in the first few days after arrival, in the midterm of the sojourn and before returning to the home country. Multiple administration of cross cultural orientation programs is necessary because predeparture experiences (degree of preparation) will influence what happens to the sojourner while abroad, which in turn will affect the individual's life after returning to the home country. Therefore attention should be drawn to the programs that are designed to prepare students to experience cultural transition twice, once in a second culture and next, at home.

Thus we emphasize the importance of effective cultural orientation programs combined with social support systems for foreign students which will enhance the success of their sojourns.

2. Foreign Students' Major Difficulties

In order to examine the first objective of this presentation, i.e. what the major difficulties foreign students in Japan are facing, we conducted a questionnaire survey of more than 300 foreign students who were studying at two national and one private universities in the western part of Japan. The students were asked to rate a number of problem items and then to go back over the questionnaire and list the five most difficult problems that they were currently experiencing. The table presents a summary of the preliminary results of our study on adjustment problems. In the table the top ten difficulties which were listed by the students are shown. These problems are classified into six categories 1) financial problems 2) interpersonal communication difficulties 3) psychosomatic problems 4) academic and academic interpersonal difficulties 5) deficiency in knowledge of Japanese culture and 6) language problems.

Some of the main problems agreed with results of other studies which examined needs of foreign students and cultural adjustment difficulties.

The adjustment problem study by Uehara (1988) of 193 foreign students at a national university in Japan showed the major problems as 1)Japanese language, 2)Japanese indirect or euphemistic expressions 3)financial problems 4a)academic (lack of progress in studies) 4b)Japanese closed group orientation 5)homesickness 6)lack of knowledge of characteristics of Japanese people. The results of the needs study (Hicks and Amifuji, 1987) showed gaps between needs and satisfactions to be largely financial and academic or academic interpersonal.

The fact that there is some congruence among a few studies at Japanese universities indicates that many of the areas mentioned above can be considered as major spheres in which foreign students are likely to encounter difficulties. In addition, interestingly enough, Church(1982) mentions that the nature of problems which foreign students tend to encounter in various countries have some similarities. He states, "the problems reported by foreign students in a variety of host countries have remained essentially the same over the last 30 years . . . the most important problems appear to be language difficulties, financial problems, adjusting to a new educational system, homesickness, adjusting to social customs and norms, and for some students, racial discrimination (p.574)." Church also points out the extent of problems which foreign students are inclined to experience show similarity in cross national comparison. He mentions that studies which have asked students directly about the degree of difficulty they encountered in adjusting to the new milieu indicated a similar percentage (15% to 25%) of foreign students who have significant difficulties.

It seems that the majority of the foreign students participating in the present study have been making reasonable adjustment to their new cultural and institutional environments. It also appears that foreign students in Japan are having similar problems with their fellow international students in other countries. Results of these studies suggest that there exist a common ground on which practitioners and experts on students' cross cultural adjustment can exchange their ideas and approaches to problems and work together to help solve the problems of foreign students throughout the world. At the same time we must remember that host universities in different countries take their own approaches toward foreign students' adjustment problems. In the following section we will deal with ways that Japanese national universities respond to the needs and problems of foreign students adjusting to new institutional and cultural environments.

3. Institutional Response

As a rule, Japanese national universities' commitment and responsibility towards providing social-cultural support for its foreign students has not yet been fully clarified and such support is still in the "construction phase." Notable progress has been made however, in the areas of health care, housing and Japanese language education. The teaching, administration and clerical staff at Japanese national universities should be encouraged to more carefully consider what kind and how much of a commitment are they making toward improving social and cultural support for foreign students and what else needs to be done.

A key problem here is that while there are many individuals within the universities who are actively working to improve the social and culturally related problems of foreign students, there is still little institutional structure and few programs which would make these kinds of endeavors more productive, effective and able to reach greater numbers of foreign students.

Going by the examples of large western universities, institutional support would include help with financial problems, housing, orientation, general information, intensive language training, recreation and social events, arrangements for promoting intercultural understanding and building social networks, advice on intercultural misunderstanding, help with psychological problems and many other extra-academic functions. In the case of Japan, we find that few studies have been made to define the problems of foreign students at Japanese universities or to examine institutional responses to these problems.

In accordance with the second objective of this presentation, in this section we will discuss how Japanese universities are responding to foreign student's needs and problems. The first section of our presentation delineated a number of problems which foreign students are presently facing at Japanese universities, our discussion here will focus on the ones which were found in our sample of foreign students in Japan. It must be noted that academic problems were rated as problematic but were excluded from the discussion due to the nature of our presentation, however in place of academic problems academic interpersonal problems will be taken up. Some of the data cited in this section comes from a questionnaire survey on institutional response to foreign student problems (Ebuchi and Hicks, 1988).

1) Financial Problems

The very large percent of students coming to Japan on their own or family funds creates severe problems when the money from home has little value in Japan. This obviously contributes to very serious problems among students from developing nations. This situation was clearly illustrated in the first section of the presentation and can be supported by data from other sources including, Hicks and Amifuji (1987) and a study by the Asia Gakusei Bunka Kyokai (1986). Financial problems per se are serious enough but they are also a negative catalyst which increases the magnitude of other adjustment problems. Thus the institutional response to financial problems of foreign students is of great interest.

Scholarships : One of the more positive responses by Japan as a nation is the very recent but substantial increase in scholarship aid. The largest scholarship program is funded by the MESC (Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture) through the universities thus the role of the national university is to administer these scholarships. Very few national universities offer their own scholarships in addition to administering the MESC scholarships. Results of a 1987 nationwide survey by the Management and Coordination Agency show that 52 universities of the 474 in Japan gave scholarships to foreign students. From this figure 43 were private, 1 was municipal and 8 were national universities. The availability of more university scholarships for privately sponsored foreign students will be an important task to work on in the next few critical years.

Information on Financial Aid : Many national universities do, however, help students indirectly by providing information about scholarships from private sources and other government sources. Such scholarships come from service clubs, private foundations, city or prefectural offices, the Association of International Education Japan, the Japan Foundation, etc. The institutional response survey showed that almost 90 percent of institutions performed this function. Some universities are granting tuition reductions or exemptions for foreign students (although this could be broadened to include more privately sponsored students).

Other Financial Aid : U.S. schools offer teaching assistantships which are often the only way that many graduate level foreign students are able to finance their way through school. Japan at the present time does not offer this kind of support and there is no T.A. system at national universities in Japan. One of the most important but least satisfied items in a recent study on needs of Asian students in Japan (Hicks and Amifuji, 1987), was "finding part time work related to my study."

Special Funds : One large national university in West Japan has just established a special donation program where faculty and staff members donate a part of their salary every month to a fund to help privately sponsored foreign students.

2)Interpersonal Communication and Making Japanese Friends

The universities have taken little initiative in promoting better interpersonal communication between host country students and foreign students. Here we can point to environmental factors such as few natural behavior settings where Japanese and foreign students can meet casually in a pleasant atmosphere. We can also point to the prevalence of "foreign student only" dormitories at national universities. Although great progress has been made in the area of housing for foreign students at national universities, these dormitories are still segregated to a large extent. From the institutional response survey we found 17 national universities having foreign student only dorms vs. 6 with mixed dorms. Private universities showed the opposite tendency with 12 universities reporting mixed vs. 3 reporting foreign student only dorms. Although there are some advantages in separating graduate students from livelier and noisier undergraduates, cultural segregation hardly serves the cause of intercultural communication.

A few universities have initiated special courses or orientation programs (usually within the language curriculum) which could explain cultural differences thus alleviating some adjustment problems. Still, however, there are not nearly enough of such programs being offered by universities.

In the case of interpersonal relationships, the university cannot, of course, submit a directive to foreign students and host students saying "thou shalt make friends," but more support in indirect ways is a very important task especially for newly arriving foreign students.

3) Psychosomatic and Psychological Problems

It is quite natural for foreign students to experience irritation, frustration and loneliness. Usually, foreign students manage to cope with this, either by themselves or through the help of co-nationals. When foreign students are unable to cope with these new day to day frustrations, serious psychological problems may arise. Furthermore, some foreign students bring unfinished psychological problems with them to Japan which are irritated by the additional pressures of many new adjustment problems, much like putting salt into a wound.

While there is no "epidemic" of severe psychological problems yet, the number of cases is likely to rise with the number of foreign students. Unless more attention is given to these kinds of issues the result may well be an increase in tragedies with few people to help deal with them. Some progress can be seen with the very recent increase in university posts for foreign student counselors. There were 91 foreign student advisors as of 1987 (41 of these posts were established in 1987). Many problems remain in dealing with psychological difficulties of foreign students. Some of these are summarized as follows. *Hesitation to visit counselors and psychologists*: Few foreign students make use of counseling, usually just suffering by themselves or getting some help from co-nationals who serve the most important role in helping with psychologically related problems. For Asian students this is especially a noticeable trend and has been documented in several Western countries as well. Japanese nationals are not accustomed to referring people to psychologists or counselors and rarely consider the possibility of asking for help for a foreign student. The result is that by the time a case appears to a counselor or psychologist it is too late to accomplish any treatment except for the "relocation therapy" of sending the foreign student home. *Language problems in counseling*: In many cases a psychologically disturbed foreign student is unable or refuses to speak Japanese and it would be impossible to finance several different counselors who could speak different languages. *Adequate therapy programs*: Few programs of brief or intensive therapy designed to match the needs or cultures of foreign students have been developed in Japan. And there are too few professionals who are being trained to develop or carry out this kind of therapy.

Institutions must face the fact that psychological problems of foreign students will increase and be better prepared to deal with the following: 1) making contact and getting help to foreign students with minor problems before they develop into serious ones (actively searching for potential problem cases in the foreign student community), 2) be able to deal with serious problems quickly and efficiently before a tragedy occurs.

In the case of the former problem, some institutions are providing information to newly arriving students such as mental health check lists, brief guides on dealing with "culture shock" and having counselors and psychologists speak to the newly arriving students about their services. In the case of the latter, more serious problems, better communication between all university support persons, the university hospital and the foreign student community is essential in getting help as quickly as possible.

4) Academic-Interpersonal Problems

As was seen in the results of our recent survey (Uehara and Hicks, 1988) foreign students in Japan are facing difficulty communicating with instructors and professors and many indicate that they are uncomfortable around their professors and instructors. When students feel they cannot openly discuss academic problems with professors or that their professors don't have time for them, there is often shock and disappointment. The rather formal nature of student-professor relations in Japan may discourage communication; this may be particularly true at the mammoth national universities. Students may construe this formal attitude of professors to mean "keep out," when in fact the professors may be receptive to discussion. On the other hand some professors have developed a "keep out" attitude, perhaps due to their work load or to previous bad experience with foreign students. More specifically professors may have come across foreign students who expected the professor to take care of all of their needs, indeed, professors may be reluctant to become involved with foreign students' socio-cultural and emotional problems because they would have little time for anything else. Some professors are already reporting "burnout" because of a lack of backup support with foreign student problems.

5) Lack of Understanding of Host Culture and Society

As was previously mentioned in other sections, most Japanese national universities do not provide enough information to foreign students cultural differences which may produce interpersonal conflicts. There is also a lack of opportunities provided by the universities for students to participate in cultural activities. Some universities are helping by organizing or cooperating in "home-stay" or "host family" programs. Ten national universities responded that they were cooperating with these kinds of programs. Orientation programs are another source of support for improving understanding of the host culture but these are still not well structured in most national universities.

6) Language Problems

Courses in Japanese as A Foreign Language are on the increase at large national universities due to financial support from the MESC. All foreign students are benefiting from some kind of Japanese courses now being offered at 40 national universities. Government sponsored (MESC) students receive special intensive language training at 10 large national universities before continuing their research or study programs. These intensive programs should be expanded to accept privately sponsored foreign students as well.

Some language courses should include information on cultural differences which may produce cultural friction. In general, private universities seem to be ahead of national universities in this kind of reform.

4. A Better Preparation for the Future

Throughout this presentation we have examined particular problems and dealt at some length with the institutional response to some of these problems. Discussion was made about innovative strategies to deal with particular problems. Since the third objective of our presentation is to make some suggestions for future innovations, in this final section we will attempt to provide some ideas for reform.

1) Reconsideration of the Support Structure

If we construct a table with the various support persons and the problems faced by foreign students, we would see that there is too little coupling between support persons, and too little definition of role responsibility i.e. who should do what for foreign students. Institutions should carefully examine the needs of foreign students (there is still a serious lack of such research) and then define the tasks and roles for support, making recommendations to the MESC for funding special training when necessary or adding extra staff members. Particularly important here is a need for defining the roles and responsibilities of foreign student advisors and tutors. These support persons have a vital role to play in the future as organizers of support for foreign students. Another group of support persons, the foreign students themselves, in their co-national and international groups and organizations should be given support and recognition from the university.

2) Reconsideration and Strengthening of the "Orientation" Programs

Programs should be more comprehensive and last longer than just one afternoon. Good orientation programs should continue and provide aftercare. Some kind of pre-entry, entry and pre-return programs should be available. This kind of support is lacking in Japan. Orientation programs should also be timed properly, if there is a two or three week gap between arrival and program, it would be advisable to have some sort of immediate assistance (perhaps through volunteers) to help in the critical early days of the sojourn. The purpose of such help would be to help students settle down and get basic information.

Orientation programs should also include participation by tutors, counselors, faculty, psychologists, experienced foreign students, volunteer students and community members, etc. Joint orientation with Japanese students is also a possibility but separate programs for the needs of foreign students should be established. Foreign student advisors could help in designing and implementing these programs assisted by tutors who could carry on the orientation after the formal programs were over. The contents of such programs should be diverse and include descriptions of intercultural problems, basic daily life information, scholarship and financial advice, legal advice and academically related advice. The JAFSA (Japan Association for Foreign Student Affairs) or the MESC could play an important role in developing such programs by bringing together Japanese and international experts and support persons from a variety of private and national universities to build a model plan for a Japanese orientation program for foreign students.

3) More National, Municipal and Private University Cooperation

A related matter here is the lack of institutional ties between national, municipal and private universities. Private universities have considerable experience with foreign students and more flexibility to develop innovative programs for foreign students. National universities can learn from such experience, notably concerning social and cultural support programs.

4) A Better General Cultural Awareness

We cannot be so naive as to expect great improvement in mutual cultural understanding through language classes or even through special seminars on Japanese customs and etiquette. A core problem is how to get individuals to reconsider stereotyped ways of perceiving others and to help them to attain more cultural flexibility without "brainwashing" them or treading on there rights or value systems. The addition of university level courses on intercultural communication to the curriculum for host and foreign students can be useful.

Reform for improving cultural awareness should be considered at all educational levels. Japanese schools could provide much more stimulating and interesting material to pupils at all levels to help them develop an awareness and interest in a variety of cultures. Presently there is too little emphasis being placed on Asian cultures and languages in the school system. This causes communication problems between non Western students and Japanese students.

5) More Cooperation between Individual Japanese Institutions and Institutions Abroad

This kind of cooperation would facilitate exchange of staff for helping prepare potential foreign students for academic, language and cultural differences, thus relieving much of the unilateral stress on host institutions. China and Malaysia are models for such projects.

6) Better Nationwide Planning for the Future

A projection of numbers (i.e. 100,000) is one thing and careful planning and policy study is another. Up until the present there have been almost no serious policy studies made on foreign students in Japan. This planning should include academic as well as social and cultural issues.

As a final note, many of these possible innovations are not as costly as they may seem. What is of vital importance however is a restructuring of the institutional support system and training of a core group of experts who can produce training manuals, videos, etc. tailored to meet the needs of foreign students in Japan. These materials can be used and more persons who are already part of the support system can receive further training. Foreign students, host students, faculty and administration can all benefit from intercultural training.

References

Argyle, Michael. (1982). "Inter-cultural Communication." *Cultures in Contact: Studies in Cross-Cultural Interaction*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Brein, Michael and David, K. (1971). "Intercultural Communication and the Adjustment of the Sojourner." *Psychological Bulletin*, 76, 215-230.

Brislin, R.W. (1981). *Cross-Cultural Encounters*. NY: Pergamon Press.

Brislin, R.W. (1974). "The Establishment of Re-Entry/Transition Seminars for Overseas Sojourners." Paper presented to the Re-Entry/Transition Workshop at Wingspread, Racine, WI.

Church, Austin T. (1982). "Sojourn Adjustment." *Psychological Bulletin*., 91, 540-571.

Ebuchi, K. and Hicks, J. (1988) A Questionnaire Study on the Institutional Policies toward Foreign Students (Unpublished Report), Research Institute for Higher education, Hiroshima University, Japan.

Furnham, A. and Bochner, S. (1986). *Culture Shock: Psychological Reactions to Unfamiliar Environments*. NY: Methuen.

Gudykunst, W.B. and Kim, Y.Y. (1984). *Communicating with Strangers: An Approach to Intercultural Communication*. NY: Random House.

Hall, E.T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. NY: Doubleday.

Hicks, J. and Amifuji Y. (1987) A Questionnaire Study of the Needs of Asian Foreign Students at Selected Japanese National Universities. *Research in Higher Education* (Daigaku Ronshu) No. 17, Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, Japan.

Hoshino, Akira (1981). "Karuchaa Shokku" *Culture Shock* (Special Issue, L'esprit D'aujourd'hui), Tokyo: Shibundo, 5-30.

Kobayashi, Testuya. (1981). *Kaigai Shijo Kyooiku, Kikoku Shijo Kyooiku* (Overseas Children's Education, Returning Children's Education). Tokyo Yuhikaku.

Ryuugakusei Shimbun Editorial Committee, Endaka no Ryuugakusei ni taisuru Eikyo

Chosa, *Asia no Tomo*, Vol.12, 1986, Asia Gakusei Bunka Kyokai Tokyo.

Uehara, Asako. (1988). "Ryuugakusei no Ibunka Tekioo" (Foreign Students' Cultural Adjustment), Gengo Shuutoku oyobi Ibunka Tekioo no Rironteki, Jissenteki Kenkyuu (Theoretical and Practical Studies on Language Acquisition and Cultural Adjustment). Hiroshima: Faculty of Education, Hiroshima University.

Uehara, Asako. (1986). "The Nature of American Student Reentry Adjustment and Perceptions of the Sojourn Experience." *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*. 10, 415-438.

Werkman, Sidney L. (1980). "Coming Home: Adjustment of Americans to the United States after Living Abroad." *Uprooting and Development: Dilemmas of Coping with Modernization*. NY: Plenum Press.

Top Ten Difficulties of Foreign Students in Japan
(Descriptive Statistics)

N=301

	Difficulty	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Financial problems	51	17.0%
2.	a) Japanese indirect expressions	43	14.3%
	b) Irritation	43	14.3%
3.	Slow progress in my study	38	12.6%
4.	Need help and guidance with study	34	11.3%
5.	a) No Japanese friends	33	11.0%
	b) Impenetrable Japanese groups	33	11.0%
6.	No open discussion with my advisor	30	10.0%
7.	a) Insufficient knowledge of Japanese society	29	9.6%
	b) Advisors guidance and direction	29	9.6%
8.	a) Language problems	25	8.3%
	b) Fatigue	25	8.3%
9.	Homesickness	24	8.0%
10.	Uncomfortable when communicating with instructors in the department	20	6.6%

9

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT OF FOREIGN STUDENTS: EXPERIENCE FROM WESTERN EUROPE*

Hans G. Schütze**

Introduction

"Social and cultural adjustment may be no less important than academic arrangements for increasing the likelihood that foreign students will learn and successfully complete their studies." This statement from the Secretariat's Scope and Issues Paper prepared for this seminar aptly underpins the relevance of the social and cultural climate and environment in which learning by Third World students in industrialized countries takes place. It may well be understating the importance of this factor. In fact, evidence from a series of case studies and evaluation/monitoring exercises suggest that the social, cultural and bureaucratic conditions under which foreign students are living during the course of their study period in the host country are sometimes more severe handicaps for their success in studies than the actual academic conditions.[1]

Of course, to identify and assess the relative importance of social and cultural factors is a very difficult task, as the specific needs, expectations, problems of Third World students are of a multidimensional nature and may, moreover, differ from individual to individual, from nationality to nationality, from host country to host country, from university to university, and from field of study to field of study.[2] The difficulty is heightened by the fact that many of these factors such as social isolation, the perception of discrimination or the difficulty to adjust to an unfamiliar cultural environment are intangible by nature, and thus perceived very differently depending on individual perception or sensitivity. The importance of others, such as the economic situation or the availability of appropriate accommodation, although qualifiable or measurable in a more objective way, often also depends on subjective standards which the student is either accustomed or aspiring to. Thus any conclusion as to the impact of certain social or cultural factors affecting students from Third World countries must be tentative rather than clear-cut or definitive – even if it can be assumed as already stressed that the role of these factors, alone or in combination, is more important than commonly thought.

---

* Paper presented at the session of Working Group B.

** Consultant, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).

The following paper attempts to identify and discuss what is thought to be the more important social or cultural problems Third World students encounter in their host countries (Part I). The following chapter will delineate very briefly some of the major measures and programs taken in order to help foreign students overcome social and cultural barriers (Part II). In the third part, the reverse process of re-acculturation and re-adjustment will be discussed as well as specific programs initiated by a number of countries to facilitate this process of re-integration into the student's country (or region) of origin. In a brief final section, some of the observations or conclusions will be summarized that emanate from the foregoing discussion (IV).

I. Tangible and Intangible Barriers to Social and Cultural Adjustment

Although the distinction between tangible and intangible factors that are negatively affecting social adjustment and the process of acculturation is often difficult to make, it might be useful for the purpose of structuring what may otherwise appear to be a complex and confusing array of impediments or barriers of varying importance. Thus, we shall begin with tangible, i.e. very concrete matters such as the financial situation and accommodation, factors that are based on facts and figures, before we shall move on to others which are entirely or at least partly based on the perception and subjective assessment by the students themselves. Examples for these are the feeling of social isolation due to – perceived or real – discrimination or a linguistic barrier resulting from an insufficient mastery of the country's language.

Economic Situation

Financial problems range among the most serious of the problems of Third World students. Of course, holders of scholarships either from the host country or institution or their home governments are not affected in the same way. Yet the majority of foreign students is not in that fortunate position but must finance their own studies, i.e. the cost of their living expenses and study fees, where these are required, through either (1) support from parents or other relatives, or (2) their own earnings from a job, or as more likely in most cases, (3) a combination of both.

In many OECD countries, foreign students are expected to self-finance their studies without resorting to gainful employment in the host country – and, in fact, proof of this financial ability is made one of the requirements for receiving a student visa. However, a deteriorating economic situation or political change in the home country, the drop in value of the home currency or foreign currency regulations can lead to the loss or substantial reduction of private financial sources. Thus, in the absence of generous scholarship systems, a substantial number of foreign students are forced to work – either full-time during semester breaks or part-time during semesters – which in some countries, however, is not legal.

Thus, in *Germany*, only roughly one-third of students from developing countries are supported by scholarships or the official Student Support System (which is open only to Germans or to those born or brought up in Germany or those having the status of political refugees). The remainder are either supported by parents or other relatives or self-support. Approximately one-third have to rely on work as the subsidiary or the main source of income. Setting the poverty level at a monthly income of 500 Deutsche marks, approximately one-forth of the Third World students in the Federal Republic must be considered poor or needy.[3]

According to a 1985 survey on overseas students in *the United Kingdom* fifty-five per cent of all students had some form of a scholarship while 45% were self-financing; of the former group, 61% stated that the scholarship covered all of their costs, i.e. tuition fees and living expenses. Asked as to the adequacy of income and corresponding financial problems, nearly three-quarters said they had enough money, while 20% had not enough and 7% had very much less than their needs.[4] However, interestingly these data may appear to be in contrast to those from Germany, they are not fully indicative of the situation of Third World students in the U.K., as the survey included foreign students from other industrialized countries such as the U.S., France or Germany.

As in other countries, in *Sweden* living expenses of foreign students are expected to be financed by sources outside Sweden, i.e. scholarships or private support. Foreign students who are not holding the status of a political refugee or an immigrant (which is however the case for an estimated half of the total number) are not entitled to receive study allowances under the Swedish State Study Assistance System applying to Swedish students.

Due to the increase in the cost of living (living expenses are around 3 times as much as they were at the beginning of the 70's), many foreign students are experiencing serious financial constraints.

However, in principle, foreign students are allowed to work for their own support only during the two summer break months but not during the academic term. As there is only a small number of Guest Scholarships available in particular for Third World students as well as a number of graduate studies, a good number of students would have to support themselves through work.

Accommodation

Another non-academic factor that is of high importance to foreign students and their social integration is the availability of adequate housing. Adequacy, also includes the aspect that housing must be affordable given most students' limited financial resources insofar as the issue is linked to finance. Decent accommodation is all the more important to foreign students, as they normally do not have family or friends living nearby where they can spend weekends or vacations as domestic students do.

Students with families, spouse or dependent children face particular difficulties. As most institutions have no, or only a very limited stock of suitable accommodation for this group, students are normally discouraged to bring along their families or spouses. Notwithstanding such advice, they do come along and are then obliged to live in inferior or isolated accommodations.[5] In contrast, single student accommodation in university dormitories is often given with preference to foreign, in particular, Third World students. This preferential treatment is based on the fact that domestic students tend to find, especially in places where shortage of housing prevails, a place more easily than foreigners, and furthermore on the recognition that living in a student community near campus provides a better chance of easy acculturation and prevents loneliness and the sense of not-belonging. However, it has been pointed out that there are nevertheless some problems for foreign students in institutional accommodation:

(a.) With the best of intentions, housing offices sometimes place foreign students together in one building or one wing of it. While this may have some positive effects — sharing certain experiences of acculturation or exchanging views on best ways to surmount barriers to such acculturation — it inevitably has the effect of "ghettoizing" these students and emphasizing their separate status.

(b.) This practice of reserving a special place for Third World students, e.g., Ethiopians placed next to Eritreans and other combinations "which may seem ethnically sensible to the institutions but which sadly may be a recipe for disaster."

(c.) In some institutions it is not uncommon for the residents of student dormitories to be asked to move out during the holiday periods in order to make way for conference participants. This means that when their domestic friends may have gone away to stay with their families or friends, they are asked to leave what has become their home, including packing up and storing all their belongings, removing pictures or other decorations from the walls, etc. Sometimes, this loss of home is exacerbated by the closing of sports centers, reading or other facilities which are open only during the academic year.[6]

While many foreign students find a place in institutional facilities, many others do not and must try to find private accommodation – a task at which they tend to be disadvantaged as compared to domestic students – even where there is no prejudice or racial on religious grounds on the part of prospective landlords or ladies. Language problems, the lack of information about how best to go about apartment hunting as well as knowledge about the current rent levels or legal clauses in renting contracts are severe handicaps.

Language Barriers

There can be no doubt that among the many possible barriers that foreign students face, lack of language proficiency is the gravest one. Having a good command of the host country's language is of pivotal importance for the social integration and academic success of foreign students.[7] While the linguistic factor is of particular importance for those students coming from a different mother tongue than is spoken in the host country, it is also relevant, though to a minor extent, to those who have already learnt and spoken the host country's language as their native or official language. Whereas for the former group the lack of comprehension and expression ability is an absolute barrier to both cultural/social adjustment and academic participation and success, the latter group, while being able to cope with everyday life situations and contacts, often ignores the academic language, either general or specific to the study field.

Several studies found, not unexpectedly, that poor language proficiency impedes understanding of course material, and class discussion. Difficulties with the written language leave an adverse effect on exam performance of students, a problem particularly serious when – as in most OECD countries – higher education assessment systems are heavily based on written exams. A British study quotes an university lecturer saying "written exam papers are important, and in the British tradition we expect certain standards of expression; these expectations can leave some overseas students with poor results and much distress."[8] While this is probably the case in the majority of institutions, both in Great Britain and elsewhere, some institutions or individual teachers are taking the lack of language proficiency into account when exam scripts are corrected.[9] The acquisition of a solid language proficiency must thus be seen as a crucial prerequisite for successful studies. It is also a considerable time factor. Thus in Germany, students from developing countries spend an average two years both on preparatory studies and language training before they start their degree studies proper.[10]

Considering that around two-thirds of the students from developing countries arrive without any or only very rudimentary knowledge of the German language, the quantitative dimension becomes apparent.[11] But even in English speaking countries where one would presume that language barriers are much lower due to the universal use of English throughout the world, difficulty with written and spoken English is perceived by teachers to be a major handicap for students whose first language is not English as is the case for about 80 % of the foreign students in the U.K.[12]

Style of Learning

Partly related to linguistic problems is another cultural factor that determines the speediness of the acculturation process as well as academic achievement. While, of course, the student's cultural and academic background prior to enrollment in the foreign institution is a decisive element, the style of learning the student is used to, plays probably an even more significant role.

According to a British survey, Third World students were found to just "memorize and regurgitate," "used to be spoon fed," or just to accept a teacher words "uncritically" and therefore have difficulties adjusting to British style learning and teaching.[13] German studies point out that Third World students are often having greater difficulties with the specific interaction and learning methods of group work therefore preferring to work by themselves. Moreover, they are found to keep poor contact to their academic teachers – which, according to one researcher, is due to a lack of interest or insecurity, and more generally, since Third World students are thought to be less able or used than German students to organize their lives and studies independently and to plan ahead over long periods of time.[14]

For self-evident reasons, those foreign students who had been previously enrolled in the host country's education system, in particular children of Third World parents residing the host country, are facing far fewer difficulties than their counterparts who were enrolled in the host country for the first time. The same is obviously true for students from countries with educational systems similar to the host country's educational system who are found to perform better academically than those from countries with clearly distinct educational systems.[15]

Social Adjustment

Contact and communication appear to be the two key determinants for social adjustment in any foreign country, not only for students from Third World countries. By their very definition both are not one-way streets. Thus, the extent of social integration depends not only on the willingness and ability of foreign students to adapt to the attitudes and behavioral patterns, to share or, at least, understand and accept, the principal values and to know and respect the traditions of the host society. It is also dependent on the other hand on the host society's openness, its tolerance and its sense of international dependency and equity among the world's nations and cultures. It follows that the process of social adjustment which is a primordial prerequisite to academic success cannot mean complete social integration at the price to be paid by the foreign student of losing his or her personal, cultural or social identity.

Evidence suggests that contact and communication as the prime vehicles of social adjustment are still insufficiently developed, their importance is not always or not fully understood, and mechanisms that have been established to enhance and foster them, underutilized.

Thus, for instance, the greatest problems for foreign students in the U.K. are loneliness and homesickness as well as is getting to know British fellow students or British people. These problems range clearly before the more concrete problems with finance or language. "Being treated badly because of race or colour" ranges far higher in the list of foreign student problems than accommodation problems or getting used to the British climate or food.[16] A German survey lists homesickness, prejudice against foreigners and lack of contact with Germans above the other problems.[17] Even more shockingly or sadly, almost two thirds of foreign students in Germany feel unwanted or at best tolerated.[18]

The Time Dimension in the Process of Social Adjustment and Acculturation

One of the points one must take into account when analysing social and cultural problems of foreign students and the strategies used to address them is that not all social and cultural adjustment problems that foreign students experience arise at the same point in time, nor do they tend to be of the same intensity.

This is rather obvious regarding language barriers that are in the way of establishing and maintaining regular social contact with fellow students, teachers, and other people of the host country. While these barriers are most powerful and difficult to overcome during the initial phase of a student's sojourn in a country with a language different from the foreign student's mother tongue, they tend to be of less importance at later phases.

It has been proposed that "adjustment as a process over time seems to follow a U-shaped curve: adjustment is felt to be early and successful to begin with; then follows a "crisis" in which one feels less well-adjusted, somewhat lonely and unhappy; finally one begins to feel better adjusted again, becoming more integrated into the foreign community."[19]

Other studies found very little empirical evidence to support their U-curve hypothesis but suggested that the occurrence of cross-cultural problems such as personal depression, loneliness, or homesickness had no relationship to the duration of the foreign sojourn.[20]

More realistic than the above two patterns would seem finding the distinguishing factors between the various barriers to social and cultural adjustment and measuring their relative importance during the initial and later phases. Thus, according to a recent German survey linguistic problems, the lack of contacts with Germans and difficulties finding appropriate housing ranged on top of the list of foreign students from developing countries when asked about their adjustment problems right after their arrival. When these students were asked some time later during their stay, the order of importance had changed. On the top of the list were homesickness, the perception of prejudice against foreigners, and problems coping with institutional red tape.[21]

On the whole, it can probably be observed that some of the major initial hurdles such as general orientation and linguistic problems as well as day-to-day problems such as shopping, housing, getting used to different food and generally relating to the host-country's culture tend to lose importance over time. By contrast, others stay the same over the whole length of stay or even increase in their relative importance. Among these are such factors as the adjustment to the colder climate, the difficulty to observe religious practices, homesickness, the perception of unequal treatment as a foreigner, or financial constraints.[22]

The dependence of the successful completion of studies from the degree of cultural and social adjustment has been one of the subjects of surveys on foreign students. Thus, for example, the U.K. survey already quoted found that the majority of students who reported problems indicated that the majority thought that their studies were effected by these problems, but only 22 % felt they were badly disturbed in their studies.[23] A German survey found, however, that in spite of the special problems of linguistic, cultural and social problems Third World students are confronted with, there is evidence that, on the whole, their study success rates are about the same as that of German students.[24] Social and cultural adjustment thus consists of a mixed bag of quite different needs, attitudes, and processes, both very practical and real as well as psychological and perceived. To know of and to address these needs and to positively influence the process of acculturation and adjustment, there are quite a number of concepts, proposals, programs and experience in the various host countries, both on the level of government, national or local, higher education institutions as well as specific bodies. It would be quite out of the scope of this paper to attempt to list even the major programs in operation in the host countries to assist and enhance foreign student's adjustment. Thus, only a few examples can be given and discussed which emanate from the above description of barriers and problems regarding the adjustment.

II. Measures and Programs to Promote Cultural and Social Adjustment

Finance

The precarious financial situation of many Third World students was discussed above when addressing the more concrete and quantifiable problems. While, of course, more and more generous scholarships for needy students would be an adequate and obvious answer, the growing number of Third World students as well as prevailing constraints concerning educational budgets, both state and institutional, precludes major increases in such funding.

One realistic step to alleviate some of the financial pressure may be to recognize the need for many self-financing students to rely on supplementary income from part-time work. In reality, this is what is happening even if it is illegal in some countries, or at least not authorized during the academic term. As it has been pointed out[25] part-time work can be combined with studies in a useful way in particular when it helps the student to gather work experience related to the field of study. But even if this is not the case, it may be helpful to make social contacts and better understand some features of working life in the host country. However, in more advanced stages of the study programs, time-consuming work which has nothing to do with the field of study, will often distract from concentration on and will, therefore, jeopardize the successful completion of studies.

Therefore, it has been suggested to set up emergency funds for needy students that would, in unforeseen circumstances of financial distress, help to bridge the financial gap, thus giving the student the feeling of security and preventing him or her from failing examinations or even dropping out altogether.[26] While some institutions or associated student body organizations have limited funds available for such emergencies, others do not – a fact which underpins the above significance of the suggestion of a general emergency funding system.

Accommodation

Although in some host countries, Third World students are given priorities over local students with respect to rooms in student dormitories, there are considerable difficulties for those not benefiting from this preferential treatment. While shortage of accommodation is also a problem for domestic students, foreigners are at a specific disadvantage, in particular when the level of their financial means is inferior to that of local students. Here, too, is need for specific assistance, often provided by institutions or the aforementioned associated student body organizations.

With respect to the very time-consuming and often discouraging process of finding one's first apartment – particularly difficult when language proficiency is still poor – the Norwegian model of an "Educational Package" is particularly noteworthy. This comprehensive package combining the study admission, the granting of a student loan as well as a guarantee of student housing is issued to the student prior to his or her arrival in Norway, thus allowing him to concentrate fully on the preparatory program without having to run the gauntlet of finding accommodation first.[27]

Language Preparation

Language proficiency, as was pointed out above, is the single most important prerequisite for smooth cultural and social adjustment and academic success. The process of acquiring a level of proficiency good enough to be able to operate in the host country's environment, is a major problem for students from another linguistic background, in particular if there are no, or at least not easily accessible places in the student's country of origin to receive serious language preparation. Thus, while Third World students arriving in Spain, France or the United Kingdom can be expected to have at least some basic knowledge of the country's language, this is not the normal case in the German speaking or the Scandinavian countries. Thus, academic training in these countries must be preceded by protracted language studies, and this is mostly done in the host country, in some cases combined with general preparatory courses that have the purpose of enabling the student from a different, and sometimes insufficient, academic background to follow and actively participate in the host country's actual study programs.

In some countries there are programs that are taught in a third language, mostly English – thus shortening the time needed for the academic acculturation process. This is particularly so for advanced, i.e. graduate or post - graduate programs, that are offered by some of the institutions in Scandinavian countries. As bilingualism is a common feature among the better educated in Scandinavia, this does not seem to pose much of a problem for teachers and local fellow students there. However, suggested reading and references in such programs to published research is mainly confined to research and literature published in the third language (English). In other countries, where the population is less bilingual, such courses might entail the danger of a certain elitest remoteness and social isolation of participants – an effect to be considered less detrimental for graduate students than for first degree, i.e. younger students who are spending considerably longer time in the host country.

As a matter of fact, a possibility also for undergraduate students of doing some of the course work in a third language might give foreign students a certain head start before their local fellow students thus compensating for some of the linguistic disadvantages they have normally. Such an innovative measure would also enhance greater understanding generally of the international dimension of culture and scientific knowledge and would thus contribute to the sense of equality of cultures and values – which, as was noted above, is an important prerequisite to successful adjustment as well as re-adjustment.[28]

Style of Learning

University preparatory courses have been mentioned already to address the problem of different or inadequate academic preparation. But while some of these programs tend to concentrate on contents rather than on actual learning techniques, it might be the role of academic counselling or orientation courses for foreign students to encourage foreign, and in particular Third World students to engage in group work. As it has been pointed out, such learning-oriented groups do not only offer the opportunity to acquire and deepen course-related knowledge and to overcome language difficulties, but discussions and interaction in such groups also provide foreign students with regular social contacts and offer the chance to discuss and tackle personal problems with the help of the group.[29]

Social Adjustment

There are numerous programs in operation to assist foreign students in the sometimes difficult process of cultural and social adjustment. It has been discussed above that adjustment problems like language difficulties arise in the beginning of the sojourn while later on for the majority of students other problems seem to become more essential. It is, therefore, quite obvious that massive help to overcome barriers to social adjustment must be made available when students first arrive.

Such help can take a great variety of forms ranging from general orientation courses or specific ones for foreign students, host family programs, the setting up and animation of international groups consisting of foreign and local students, or informal coffee hour meetings (Sweden)[30] to various counselling programs or services for foreign students in virtually all Western European countries.

The efforts made by host institutions and existence of a great variety of different schemes to promote social and cultural adjustment of foreign students are noteworthy. To classify them or to try to assess their respective effectiveness would be useful for the purpose of an international exchange, but this would require more first hand information lending itself to a comparative analysis than was available to the author of this paper.

Nevertheless the task is a formidable one and judging from the evidence of the surveys on Third World students cited above – has not yet been satisfactorily resolved.

III. Re-acculturation and Re-adjustment

Although a small part of foreign students eventually stays to live and exercise their profession in the host country, the majority returns to their home countries. While the former phenomenon is clearly problematic for the sending country in the sense that part of the intellectual elite, whose talents and commitment would be important for the country's development will not be available for this task ("brain drain"), the process of re-adjustment as well as the adequate utilisation of those who do return is often equally problematical.

Problems arise above all in two areas: in the adequate utilisation of the academic degree and professional knowledge and in the process of social re-adjustment. It can probably be presumed that the students who have succeeded best in adjusting to the cultural and social environment of the host country, are those who find it most difficult to return to their own country upon completion of their studies: (from German report:)

> "This correlation between adaptation/integration and the readiness to return home points out a certain dilemma: On the one hand, a greater ability to integrate or adapt to the conditions in the host country leads to a more successful university career. On the other hand, exactly this readiness to adapt to the host country and the alienation from the home country resulting from this reduce the possibility for returning to the home country."[31]

Of course, time is an important element in this process. The longer a foreign student stays in the host country, the better he tends to become integrated and – reversely – the more alienated he/she tends to get from his home environment. Thus, young foreigners who pursue their undergraduate and graduate studies in countries such as Germany where the average length of stay of foreign students aiming at a full graduate university degree is nine years,[32] will have spent, once they graduate, the greater part of their early and still formative adult years in a culture that is not their own. A certain estrangement from their home culture must thus be considered quite natural and the rule rather than the exception. Thus according to the German survey on foreign students already quoted, the greatest obstacle to returning lies in the political situation in the home country that often causes concern for the loss of certain human rights that these students have enjoyed in the host countries, or fear of political discrimination or even persecution. The second most important obstacle is reportedly the family situation, in particular when students have gotten married to local partners who are not familiar with, and opposed to accompanying the partner back to his or her home country.

The process of "uprooting" is a matter of concern both to host and sending countries. Besides purely administrative measures on the part of host countries such as expiration of student visa and residence permits, or the non-authorisation of engaging in gainful employment upon completion, (or definite non-continuation) of studies, there are examples of positive re-adjustment programs. Such programs that aim primarily at keeping students in touch with reality and developments in their native country and preparing them for social re-entry in particular into professional life, can take various forms. Thus, e.g., some universities in Germany offer specific programs for Third World students that have completed their engineering degrees. These programs aim at preparing these students for their return through specifically targeted information about labour market condition in their home countries, courses in project planning and management as well as personnel management, maintenance and servicing, technology assessment and work organisation, and technical English. Theoretical courses in these fields lasting several months are then followed by a four month practical training session with an enterprise, either in the Federal Republic, the student's home country or another Third World country. Not only are these courses (like other academic courses) tuition free, but participants are also granted a scholarship as well as 50% of the moving costs when returning to the home country. Some of these programs provide for two 4-5 months trainee sessions with enterprises, one of which in Germany and the second one in the home country, bringing the total duration of the program up to 12 months. Re-integration courses of this kind are financed and co-ordinated in Germany by a specific agency, the Centre for International Migration and Development (CIM).

Other forms of facilitating re-integration are primarily based on a continuing process of information during the entire duration of studies. Information on the cultural, economic, scientific and technological situation, recent developments and likely prospects in the home countries not only prepares students for the realities back home, this knowledge is also instrumental in recognizing the relevance of studies (or, as it may be in some cases, the lack of such relevance) for their future professional applicability in the respective home countries.

Other elements of re-integration assistance are counseling and placement services both by either host institutions, or central agencies in the host country on the one hand, and placement offices, chambers of commerce, or employer organisations, in the sending countries on the other hand. While this might help the returning graduate if not to find a job, at least to gather realistic and valuable information about job possibilities, it must be stressed that re-integration is a process that must start much earlier, preferably even before leaving the country to go abroad for studies. Thus concepts for assisting re-integration must be developed comprehensively and should include the whole period of study.

Summary

Among the various barriers to cultural and social adjustment of Third World students in Western Europe, the lack of language proficiency and hence difficulties to make contacts and communicate both with fellow students, teachers and other local people are the most critical ones. But even if language skills are sufficient, there are still problems of social isolation due to a lack of contact and communication. Both are two-way streets and social integration of foreign students is not only dependent on the ability or willingness of students to adjust but also on the society's openness and tolerance and its sense of international dependency and equity among the world's nations and countries. Social adjustment cannot mean complete social integration at the price of losing his or her personal cultural or social identity. On the contrary, only if the student can preserve this identity while learning to operate in a different system of cultural and social values, behavioral patters and traditions will he or she be able to return to his or her native environment without major reverse re-integration problems.

Notes

1. V. Chinapah, Foreign Students at Institution of Higher Learning in Sweden, OECD/CERI unpublished background paper Dec. 1986, p.1.
2. *ibidem* p.2.
3. K. Schnitzer/H. Schaeper, Problems of Third World Students in the Federal Republic of Germany, OECD/CERI unpublished expert paper, 1987.
4. G. Williams/M. Woodhall/U. O'Brien, *op. cit.*
5. A. Niven, Salad Days without the Dressing? What British Higher and Further Education Institutions Can Do for Their Overseas Students, in G. Williams et al., *Readings in Overseas Student Policy*, London (Overseas Trust Fund) 1987, p. 127-138.
6. *ibidem.*
7. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.*

8. G. Williams/M. Woodhall/U. O'Brien, *op. cit.*
9. *ibidem.*
10. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.*
11. M. Ehling, *Als Ausländer an deutschen Hochschulen* (Foreign Students in German Higher Education), Frankfurt, (World University Service), 1987.
12. Williams/Woodhall/O'Brien, *op. cit.*
13. Williams et al, *op. cit.*
14. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.* p. 21.
15. Ph. Altbach/Y. Lulat, International Students in Comparative Perspective: Towards a Political Economy of International Study, in: Ph. Altbach et al., *Research on Foreign Students and International Study: An Overview and Bibliography*, New York (Praeger), 1985.
16. Williams et al, *op. cit.*
17. Ehling, *op. cit.* p. 467 sequ.
18. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.*
19. Altbach/Lulat, *op. cit.* p. 24; Chinapah, p. 13 uses a similar model.
20. Altbach/Lulat, *ibidem.*
21. Ehling, *op. cit.*
22. *ibidem.*
23. Williams et al., *op. cit.*
24. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.*
25. *ibidem.*
26. *ibidem.*
27. J.N. Olsen, Innovative Practices and Arrangements for Foreign Student in Norway, OECD/CERI unpublished expert paper, (1987).
28. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.* p. 27.
29. Altbach/Lulat, *op. cit.*
30. Chinapah, *op. cit.*
31. Schnitzer/Schaeper, *op. cit.* p. 27.
32. *ibidem*, p. 9.

10

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT BY FOREIGN STUDENTS: THE AUSTRALIAN EXPERIENCE[*]

Brigid Ballard[**]

Introduction

Australia's experience with international students both overlaps with and differs in many respects from the experience of North American and Western European countries; it also both resembles and differs from that of Japan. Like Japan, we are an island country, which makes feasible the centralized planning and regulation of the flow of foreign students, unlike countries with common land boundaries or complex relationships with ex-colonial nations or regional alliances. Like Japan, we recruit over 75% of our overseas students from Asian countries – although, of course, in coming to Australia these students are moving into a Western society and education system.

And that Western cultural tradition, of which Australia is firmly a part, has some important consequences for our society. Like the countries of North America, Australia is a relatively new nation which has been created by migrants from many different countries, though predominantly from Britain and Western Europe. Like North America and Britain (though unlike the rest of Europe), our national language is English and we are resolutely monolingual; and our tertiary system is a blending of the American and British traditions of higher education. Like Britain, we have recently moved to a policy of accepting full fee paying overseas students into our education system. This has led to an explosion of enrolments in the non-formal sector, largely in English language and vocational skills courses, and to a reinvigorated interest in the provision of support services to meet the the social, cultural and academic needs of foreign students in our institutions of higher education.

Australia, then, presents a unique blend of problems and challenges to overseas students enrolling in our tertiary system. For this reason alone the Australian experience in meeting the needs of these foreign students can be of interest to other countries involved in the provision of international education. Any examination of this experience must start with an understanding of the way in which Australian society presents itself to the incoming foreign student.

---

[*] Paper presented at the session of Working Group B.

[**] Student Counsellor (Academic), Australian National University, Australia.

Adjustment to a New Social Context

As indicated in our Country Report prepared for this Conference, we in Australia are welcoming foreign students in greatly increasing numbers into a society that is already distinctively multi-cultural. Approximately 21% of our population has been born outside Australia and, although the majority of these migrants come from European countries, there is now a significant increase in the numbers coming from the Middle East, from Asia and from South America. We have, therefore, a well developed system for assisting people from many different backgrounds to settle into life in this new country and society.

However the fact that we have a high proportion of migrants in our population does not necessarily mean that it is easy for our overseas students to adjust to the Australian way of life. Three quarters of our foreign students come from the Asian region, with Hong Kong, Indonesia and Malaysia supplying the greatest numbers. So these students do not reflect the prevailing migrants patterns, and the assistance they need to adapt to new life styles and social situations during their time in Australia is necessarily different from that needed by permanent migrants coming from Europe. Whereas in the past there was a tendency to treat foreign students as though they were migrants and, for example, slot them into English classes for adult migrants, it is now recognized that special programmes and support systems are necessary for these students.

As with anyone living abroad for what is probably the first time, overseas students often experience extreme loneliness away from their closeknit and supportive family network, missing the familiar foods and the scenes of their home towns. They face also the added problems of having to cope, both in their studies and their everyday lives, with a foreign language (and a difficult Australian accent) and very different students life styles (MSJ Keys Young Planners, 1984).

In some major cities, such as Sydney, Melbourne and Perth, there are large communities of migrants from the students' home countries who can provide advice and support for these students. A study of foreign students in one Sydney university reported that 51% had relatives or close family friends living nearby in the city (Burke, 1986). However these students, as well as students studying in smaller centres or those who come from countries with little tradition of migration to Australia, do have a clear need for more structured assistance in helping them adjust to life in this country. There is, too, a reciprocal need to encourage Australian institutions and communities to accept and welcome the overseas students in their midst.

Evolving Recognition of Special Needs of Overseas Students

Although Australian schools and tertiary institutions have a long tradition of accepting overseas scholars, the recent increase in the numbers of such students, due largely to the policy of encouraging full fee paying enrolments, has led to a more systematic recognition of their special needs. An earlier response by institutions to these foreign students had been to assume that if they had met the same entrance requirements as Australians, then they could, and indeed should, be treated as indistinguishable from Australian students. However, it was readily apparent that such an approach was manifestly unfair to students struggling in a foreign language and an alien culture, and it was also non-productive in terms of academic success.

In June 1988 the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (representing all Australian universities) and the Australian Committee of Directors and Principals in Advanced Education (representing the other major tertiary institutions) drew up a Code of Ethical Practice for all institutions enrolling full fee paying students. A similar Code has also been drawn up for private schools and colleges. These voluntary codes set out the broad principles by which institutions are to be guided in providing services for such students:

> Australian institutions should recognize their on-going responsibilities for the education and welfare of full-fee paying overseas students. Institutions should ensure that the academic programs, support services and social environment offered to overseas students will encourage them to have a positive attitude about Australian education and Australia when they return home at the conclusion of their studies. (AVCC & ACDP, 1988, p.2)

The guidelines later list in considerable detail the welfare services and staff support services that should be provided, including orientation programmes, additional assistance with English language and with study skills, the promotion of on-campus and community social networks, and training programmes for staff involved with these students.

In many cases these programmes are already well developed, either by individual institutions or by government sponsored organizations. Four of the most common problem areas in which special support is provided are outlined below.

i. Orientation Programmes

Since so many of our foreign students come from cultures and backgrounds very different from the Western way of life in Australia, much effort is being put into devising suitable pre-departure and on-arrival courses which will help them adjust to the unfamiliar social and academic situations they will meet. These programmes are commonly run by the institutions enrolling the students but, in the case of students coming under government sponsorship, there has been a tradition of government agencies providing comprehensive orientation programmes both before the students leave their own countries and on arrival in Australia.

The pre-departure courses take many forms. Some are quite simple programmes for full fee paying students, run in the capital city of the students' home country and lasting only one day. Such programmes are led by staff from the enrolling Australian institution and they often make use of recent graduates from that institution who have now returned home to their own country. It has been found that the most useful discussions are those held between these graduates and the prospective students, using their own language. In some cases the parents or relatives of the students also attend some briefing sessions. Many institutions have prepared quite elaborate orientation kits; others rely on the more general materials provided by AIDAB (Australian International Development Aid Bureau, a branch of the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade) or IDP (International Development Program, an organization based on Australian universities and colleges).

More comprehensive pre-departure programmes are organized for sponsored students, who are usually selected to undertake postgraduate study. Some of these students may have completed a Masters degree in another English-speaking country and so will already be familiar with the problems of coping with a new academic setting. Others, often those coming to take a Graduate Diploma or Masters degree, may have particular problems leaving behind their families and the security of their academic or government jobs and, at a mature age, having to adjust to the life of a student once again. For these students the pre-departure programmes are run either by individual institutions or by IDP. They can be quite lengthy courses which include both intensive language training and an introduction to the teaching and study methods used in Australian universities. For example, a programme in Indonesia combines up to five months intensive English at the Australian Language Centre in Jakarta, followed by a course of specific academic orientation for all scholars (including those who did not need to attend the language training) in the skills of advanced reading techniques and the styles of academic writing required for theses and seminar papers. Such elaborate programmes are feasible when the participating students can be organized as a group, with group travel bookings to Australia and a centralised system for arranging placements in Australian institutions. For private students the response is, inevitably, more piecemeal.

Whether or not foreign students have taken part in a pre-departure programme, each institution of higher education in Australia is expected to provide some type of special on-arrival programme for them. Those students who are sponsored by their governments or through an agreement with the Australian government will also participate in a two or three day orientation programme run either by AIDAB or IDP. These programmes are designed to provide specific assistance with settling in to a particular institution in a particular town or city. Students are given advice on practical matters such as banking, finding accommodation, buying a car, and locating Asian food suppliers. They are also introduced to the facilities of their university or college and are taken to meet the key support staff, their departments and lecturers, and the relevant student associations.

ii. Accommodation

Accommodation is always a primary concern for new students, and in the major cities a problem often arises when students have to find their own accommodation in the open market. In most cases the institutions provide advice and a listing of locally available rental accommodation, and overseas student networks also assist new students to find suitable rooms. In the smaller centres most student accommodation is provided in hostels on or near the campus, and in many cases overseas students may be given priority for such accommodation.

In those institutions where there are International Houses or halls which attract a lot of overseas students, there are clear policies preventing any hall becoming a wholly overseas 'ghetto'; in many institutions there is a 50/50 overseas/local quota. In rented accommodation, however, it is much more common for overseas students, particularly those with a common culture and language, to live together and in isolation from Australian students. There is not a strong tradition in Australia of people renting single rooms to students: it is more common for a group of students to rent a whole house and for the group to change its composition as individual students come and go.

iii. English Language Competence

Training in English language, although a continuing problem, is generally undertaken in the students' own countries prior to departure, as they have to pass a proficiency test before they can be accepted to study in a tertiary institution in Australia. However most students do need continuing assistance with upgrading their language competence, especially in the academic skills of reading and writing, throughout their degree courses. In some cases this assistance may be available in the university or college. Otherwise the students will be expected to pay for additional language courses or tutoring.

However an increasing number of students now come directly Australia to gain the language training that they will require if they wish to proceed to degree studies. As full fee paying students, they can take an intensive language course at an ELICOS centre (English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students) which usually takes six months or a year and includes social and cultural orientation as well as language training. Such courses offer students the advantage of learning English in a wholly English-speaking environment. Also, drawing on the teachers' familiarity with the Australian tertiary system, these students have access to relevant advice and assistance with their applications for admission to appropriate courses of further study within Australia.

iv. Bridging Courses

There are also many special programmes set up for particular groups of students. These can involve specific agreements between institutions in the students' home country and in Australia, or arrangements to meet the needs of particular types of students or required training. There is, for example, an arrangement between a group of tertiary institutions in South Australia and the Malaysian University of Science for selected Malaysian students to attend a three month bridging programme in Adelaide before proceeding to studies in medicine, dentistry and other demanding courses. Another programme in

West Australia catered for students from Thailand who were selected by the Thai government from areas outside Bangkok where there had been little access to English teaching. In this programme intensive English was integrated into the regular course of studies so that, over a period of two years, the students completed a year's diploma course in a technical field alongside their English training.

Support Services

i. Institutional

It is, of course, within the administrative structures of the educational institutions that the support networks most finely attuned to the needs of overseas students have been developed. In Australia there is a strong tradition of providing support services free to all enrolled students. Pastoral care is, in most institutions, considered to be an integral component of the education system. Universities, colleges of advanced education and institutes of technology will provide some or all of the following student services:

- personal counselling
- accommodation office
- loans/welfare office
- careers advice
- casual/part-time employment office
- health centre
- recreation/sports facilities
- study/learning skills assistance

Foreign students have access to all these services, and most commonly there will also be a special Overseas Students Adviser whose duty it is to look after their individual and collective needs and to assist them in coping with the demands of living and studying in Australia. There will also be some provision for assistance with English, either through a special language centre or within the study skills programme.

It has become clear, however, that local and foreign students tend to make use of these services in distinctively different ways. Personal counselling, for example, is often under-used by those overseas students who come from societies in which personal problems are not discussed frankly with strangers. At home such problems would be handled by family members or senior members of the community.

By contrast, foreign students are usually over-represented in their use of the health services. This is partly understandable as a reaction to a change in climate, food and surroundings, but a visit to a surgery is also a culturally acceptable avenue for signalling problems other than directly medical matters. The formal reporting of a headache may, in fact, be an initial step in uncovering difficulties with academic work or with personal, financial or social problems. Consequently our medical staff have to be sensitive to the unexpressed needs of foreign students and be able to refer them to other more appropriate students services when necessary.

ii. Community

In addition to the services formally provided by the receiving institutions, there is also a range of community based services and activities of a non-academic kind which foreign students are encouraged to make use of. Within the universities and colleges themselves there are usually national student associations; for Asian students there will be organized on a country basis, for African students (of whom we have relatively few) there is an umbrella African Students Association. These organizations provide a useful network for new students, offering both social and academic support, and draw on the experience of more senior students who have themselves already faced and overcome the problems of initial adjustment. Such associations usually organize a cultural evening during the year when the students put on a show of traditional music and dance and provide traditional food. They will invite their teachers and other students to these events, and the money collected is used for prizes and for charities in the home country. Some of these national student organizations also have an Australia-wide network and meet for annual conferences.

The overseas students' organizations can provide a means for representing the interests and views of their members to the institution, to Government and to the Australian people. In addition, in many institutions there will be an overseas students' representative on the committee of the Students' Association (for undergraduates) or the Research Students' Association (for postgraduates) who can act as spokesperson for their special needs.

Relations with the wider Australian community are also handled systematically. In most large centres there are co-ordinating committees, set up with funding from AIDAB, to facilitate community involvement with overseas students. These committees, which are composed of representatives of service organizations (Rotary, Red Cross, etc.), religious groups, civic leaders, student organizations and interested individuals, arrange orientation camps, visits to country farms, to the mountains and the snow, to the beaches, and to areas of local interest for overseas students enrolled in tertiary institutions. They also organize "friendship families" who will take a personal interest in particular students, inviting them home for meals, to share in family excursions, and giving them some experience of ordinary Australian life. For students who have specifically come to Australia to learn English, many programmes include a family stay as part of the learning experience.

In some of the smaller Australian communities, where a sudden influx of foreign students can cause puzzlement, the overseas students have invited the general public to share in their music, dancing and food at their cultural evenings. In return, the students are specially invited to local festivals and agricultural shows.

Adjustments in Learning Styles: The Neglected Field

While a great deal of official attention is paid to the larger social and cultural adjustments which students must make in moving from their home countries to a foreign context, it is a common experience that these students themselves are more anxious about their successful adaptation to the new demands of their academic courses. They have come to Australia primarily to get a qualification, and it is only when they feel confident that they can cope with their studies that they are then prepared to allow time to find out more about life in Australia and to join in activities with other students and with the wider community. So the starting point for successful adjustment lies, in many cases, in the academic rather than the social context.

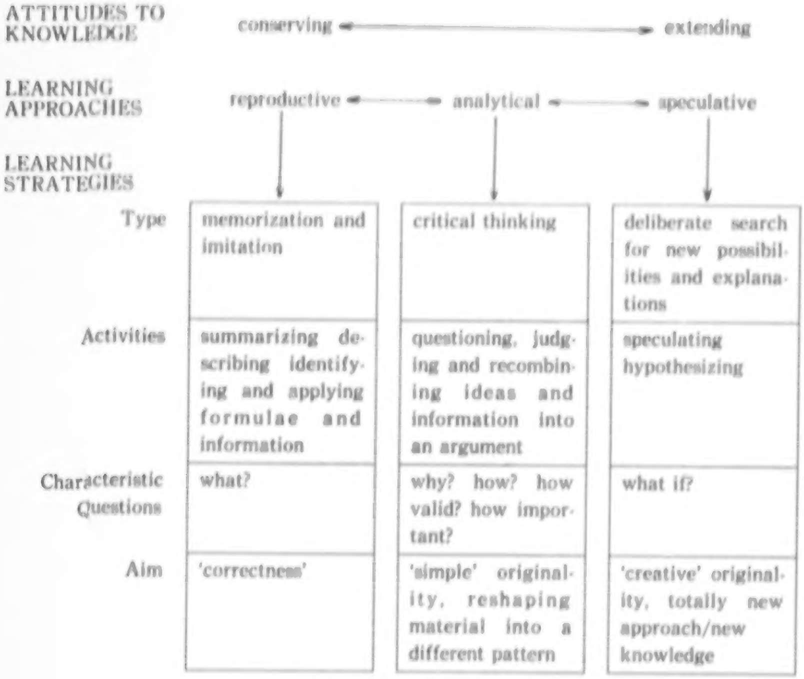
It is frequently assumed that, given a little assistance or a suitable talk in an orientation programme, the academic adjustment of these students will proceed smoothly. The reality frequently proves otherwise, and interest on the part of the academic support services for foreign students has recently begun to focus on the crucial differences in learning styles which Asian students and those educated in Western traditions bring to their studies.

Australian experience suggests that students coming to study in our universities and colleges benefit greatly from specialized assistance in bridging this cultural divide between their previous study methods and the styles of learning which were appropriate in their own countries, and the more analytical and openly critical approach to knowledge which is expected of students in this country. The seminal works of Professor H. Nakamura(1960), in his UNESCO study *The Way of Thinking of Eastern Peoples*, and of Professor R.

Kaplan(1965), in his studies of cultural patterns in written discourse, have alerted us to the importance of making explicit to students from other countries the ways in which different cultures can have distinctive attitudes to approaching, manipulating and expressing knowledge, while also recognizing the possibility of variations within each culture.

As a first step it is necessary to develop ways of making these distinctive approaches clear to the overseas students and to their Australian teachers. For example, the development of a model showing the relationship between distinctive attitudes to knowledge and the consequent styles of teaching and learning appropriate to each can be a useful strategy for clarifying these fundamental differences.

Figure 1: Learing styles



ATTITUDES TO KNOWLEDGE: conserving ←——→ extending

LEARNING APPROACHES: reproductive ←——→ analytical ←——→ speculative

LEARNING STRATEGIES

Type	memorization and imitation	critical thinking	deliberate search for new possibilities and explanations
Activities	summarizing describing identifying and applying formulae and information	questioning, judging and recombining ideas and information into an argument	speculating hypothesizing
Characteristic Questions	what?	why? how? how valid? how important?	what if?
Aim	'correctness'	'simple' originality, reshaping material into a different pattern	'creative' originality, totally new approach/new knowledge

(form Ballard & Clanchy, 1984, P. 12)

The model set out in Fig. 1 is based on a continuum of attitudes to knowledge, ranging from the conserving to the extending, with clear implications for learning strategies and classroom behaviour. Within the Australian educational tradition for example, we might find the conserving approach to be generally characteristic of our secondary schools, where the teachers teach, the pupils learn, and the exams accredit the achievement of both. The analytical approach would most commonly be used by Australian undergraduates, and the extending approach would be appropriate for postgraduate studies. In many Asian scholarly traditions, more value is placed on the conserving attitude throughout the whole education system.

Within the Australian academic system, there are also distinctive strategies by which evidence is critically analysed, by which arguments are derived from the relationship between different theories and competing interpretations of data, and by which an evaluation of conflicting arguments is reached. For students from some Asian cultures the very thought of questioning the authority of the lecturer, the printed word, or the findings of experts is initially distasteful and stressful, and they need to be inducted gradually into this new epistemological tradition. Yet it is only through such a shift in understanding that these students can make the vital intellectual adjustment that is necessary for academic success in Australia.

Many institutions do make available the specific assistance needed to help foreign students make this essential adjustment. Such help may be systematically provided by lecturers, by supervisors or by staff who specialize in assisting students improve their learning and study skills. it is usually most effective when provided on an individual basis and concurrently with the student's mainstream studies, rather than as a pre-sessional or separately packaged supplement to those studies.

The development of a model of learning behaviours, such as that sketched in Fig. 1, also provides academic staff with a way of interpreting the apparently aberrant reactions of obviously gifted overseas students. Instead of merely dismissing them as "rote learners," "text dependent students" and "students who can memorize but can't think," the staff can recognize that such behaviours are symptomatic not of incompetence or intellectual limitations but of different cultural approaches to the task of being a good student. Once the differences are recognized as being fundamentally rooted in diverse but equally valid cultural traditions, then it is possible to make explicit the shifts that are necessary, and for the lecturers to make more clear exactly what they do expect of their students.

Nor is it only the overseas students who are expected to make adjustments in their behaviour; staff also have to change, and staff development programmes are an integral component of successful institutional responses to foreign students. There is now a growing interest in providing cross-cultural workshops for both academic and general staff within tertiary institutions. For staff in the service areas, these may take the form of cross-cultural awareness training. The programme for academic staff usually includes a systematic introduction to the educational and social backgrounds of students from different Asian countries. This is followed by discussion about how these differences might affect the students' approaches to study and might be used to interpret both their learning behaviour and their social interactions with staff and other students.

Conclusion

In accepting foreign students into Australian colleges and universities, it is recognized that there must be special programmes to enable these students to adapt to the unfamiliar surroundings, and that these programmes must be planned to meet both the initial and continuing needs of the students throughout their stay in Australia. The effectiveness of these support services can contribute significantly to the quality of the students' experience in Australia. It is also recognized that some training will be necessary for the staff in our institutions of higher education in ways of coping constructively with students from other cultures.

The promotion of cultural and social adjustment is best provided by combining the resources of past students, of the institutions and of the community. In this way the Australian institutions and the wider community also benefit from a clearer understanding of our Asian neighbours and of countries further from our shores. And, we hope, our foreign students return home not only with their well-earned academic qualifications but also with a soundly based appreciation of the Australian way of life.

References

Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee(AVCC) & Australian Committee of Directors and Principals in Advanced Education(ACDP), (1988), 'Code of ethical practice in the provision of full-fee courses to overseas students by Australian higher education institutions,' Canberra.

B. Ballard & J. Clanchy, (1984), *Studying Abroad: a manual for Asian students*, Longman Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur.

B. Burke, (1986), *Experience of Overseas Undergraduate Students*, Student Counselling and Research Bulletin, University of New South Wales, Sydney.

R. Kaplan, (1966), 'Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education,' *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20.

MSJ Keys Young Planners, (1984), 'Survey of private overseas students in Australia,' in *Mutual Advantage*, Report of the Committee of Review of Private Overseas Student Policy, Australian Government Publications Service, Canberra, Appendix G.

H. Nakamura, (1960), *The Ways of Thinking of Eastern Peoples*, UNESCO, Tokyo.

11

FOREIGN STUDENT ADJUSTMENT: ISSUES AND PERSPECTIVES*

Philip G. Altbach**

In the literature on foreign students, issues related to social and psychological adjustment are a common theme. Adjustment issues have been a concern of organizations concerned with foreign students and constitute the largest number of doctoral dissertations. The social, psychological and academic adjustment of foreign students is without question one of the most important aspects of concern, since without appropriate adjustment students will not obtain the maximum benefit from their study abroad. They might not even be able to complete their programs. The purpose of this paper is to place adjustment issues in a broad perspective. To date, much of the literature has concerned specific aspects of adjustment with the aim of improving conditions or understanding a phenomenon. There has been little, if any, discussion of issues of adjustment from a wider viewpoint. Our definition of adjustment is broad: we are concerned here with virtually all of the elements of the sojourn experience that directly affects the individual student, from living conditions and food to adjustment to a different academic system.

No one would disagree with the notion that all foreign students should have the best possible experience during their overseas sojourn and that they should learn as much as possible. Sponsoring agencies and academic institutions have worked hard to ensure that initial student adjustment and orientation is as effective and complete as possible and in some cases follow-up concern is provided for students during their course of study. It is, however, my contention here that the foreign student community might be too concerned with adjustment issues and that a more laissez faire approach may be just as effective. Indeed, an era when foreign study has become a mass enterprise, it is often no longer practical to provide much individual attention to the individual student. This is particularly the case when the majority of the world's foreign students are self-funded.

---

* Paper presented at the session of Working Group B.

** Professor, State University of New York at Buffalo, U.S.A.

Ambiguous Data

The data on student adjustment is rich, yet at the same time unclear. The vast majority of the research looks at individual variables such as the impact of social relations with host-country students on adjustment. Broader comparative issues are generally ignored. For example, the very significant differences among nationality groups have received little attention. Understanding the propensity of students from particular countries for adjustment problems may be useful not only for admissions decisions but also for efforts to assist with these problems. We also know very little about whether foreign students are more likely than domestic students to encounter serious problems of adjustment to the academic experience. It is clear from experience that foreign students do have special needs and problems, but it less clear that their problems on all important dimensions are more serious than those of domestic students. Do foreign students fail to complete their degrees at a higher rate than domestic students? Is there a higher level of psychological problems among foreign students? It seems fairly obvious that eating disorders, which seem to be a problem among foreign students, would be much more serious among them than among domestic students—but again there is little, if any, comparative research.

There is also too little differentiation among graduate and undergraduate students in the literature on adjustment so that we sometimes get aggregate perspectives which do not take into account the very real differences among these two key groups of students. Undergraduate foreign students, generally younger and more inexperienced than their graduate compeers, are likely to have more serious problems of adjustment. Their academic motivation may be lower and their career goals less clear. While graduate students are the largest component of the foreign student population in most host countries, undergraduates deserve considerable attention as well. Discussions of adjustment issues based only on aggregate statistics may be misleading.

The comparative study of adjustment issues among different nationality groups of foreign students has been largely ignored. There is some data to indicate that students from Hong Kong and Taiwan adjust better than students from some other countries and there are some dissertations concerning adjustment variables among students from more than one country. It is also fairly clear that students from Western European nations adjust more easily to American higher education and society than students from many Third

World nations, reflecting the similarities in culture and education between North America and Western Europe. We know very little in a comprehensive way about how students from different national backgrounds adjust to the experience of education overseas. Such comparative insight would provide useful data on cultural differences, the broader problems of adjustment and related topics.

Despite much research on aspects of adjustment problems, we know little about programs designed to deal with these problems. For the United States, Canada and Britain, there has been some research on orientation programs and on a few other aspects (such as health services) relating to the adjustment of foreign students. We know very little about specific programs, services or policies in most countries. The Soviet model for assisting foreign students, for example, would be very interesting, since the USSR hosts a large number of foreign students and all of them are officially sponsored and funded. Approaches and policies for assisting foreign students in Western Europe and Japan would also be relevant for study and consideration.

Academic institutions are the key element in any program for foreign student adjustment since they deal most directly with foreign students and have the greatest impact on them. The policies of universities differ significantly. Some academic institutions, especially in North America and the U.K., devote considerable attention and funding to programs aimed at foreign student adjustment. Foreign student advising has become a semi-profession in these countries and, at least in the larger universities, an infrastructure for foreign student services exists. We know very little in a comprehensive way concerning the organization, funding and philosophy of such local foreign student services. Other nations with significant numbers of foreign students, such as Japan, West Germany, the Philippines and France all provide some services for their foreign students. There is very little known about such services of the rationale behind them. Thus, there is a considerable need to know about the approaches taken to foreign student adjustment at the level of the academic institutions. We need not only descriptions of programs and policies, but also analyses how these programs work, how they are funded and changes made in them over time.

There are also national approaches to the adjustment of foreign students. We know virtually nothing about how governments deal with these issues. Do governments provide funding for foreign student programs? Are funds given directly to academic institutions? Is there an overarching philosophy concerning foreign student adjustment issues? Have national policies and programs changed over time? In a few countries, organizations like the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (US) or the United Kingdom Council on Overseas Students Affairs (Britain) play a role in both policy development and in implementation. We need to know how these constituencies in various countries operate.

Some countries have developed distinctive policies relating to foreign student adjustment issues. The Soviet Union, for example, has developed a major university mainly for foreign students (the Patrice Lumumba Friendship University in Moscow) and it funds all of its foreign students. Several other Eastern European nations follow similar policies. In the United States, policies are mostly left to individual academic institutions and sometimes to state governments, with varying results. Britain, Canada and Australia have all devoted considerable national attention to problems of foreign students in general and to some extent to adjustment issues as well. Documentation and reports exist. There is much that can be learned from the approaches of the major host nations regarding a range of adjustment issues. Virtually nothing is known about the costs (and benefits) of efforts to assist adjustment.

Entire important categories of students are virtually missing from the literature concerning foreign student adjustment. Women foreign students, a growing and highly important segment of the foreign student population, are under-researched in all respects, including their adjustment. Refugee students are in a particularly difficult situation and their adjustment might well be particularly difficult. Yet, there is very little research on such students. While foreign scholars (individuals not pursuing formal degrees but studying in overseas universities) constitute an increasingly large group, there is virtually nothing known about them. Foreign scholars are sometimes in a particularly difficult situation since they are not enrolled formally in the university and no one may be looking after them.

Despite the fact that the literature on foreign students have paid considerable attention to student adjustment questions, there are major gaps in this literature. As noted, bulk of the literature relates to problems of individuals rather than to broader analysis of issues and practices. Without such a broader discussion, it will be difficult to understand some of the key issues relating to how governments, academic institutions and service organizations might assist in the complex adjustment problems of foreign students.

Adjustment and Cultures

Trans-cultural existence is difficult under the best of circumstances—and foreign student status is often not the best circumstance. Indeed, student status is almost by definition laden with tension. The challenge of learning—and of being evaluated. The always difficult situation of adults being treated, in some ways, like minors by academic institutions and professors. The problematic situation for students on the one hand of having considerable autonomy and freedom (perhaps unprecedented freedom from family and other responsibilities) and at the same time being under the control of universities in terms of examinations, schedules and the like. There has been much written about the specific culture of the student. It is surprising that there is very little discussion of the interplay between broader concepts of student culture and the situation of foreign students.

Foreign students must fit into several different cultural contexts and this adds to the tensions that are placed on them. They are, of course, part of the student culture. For foreign graduate students, who are frequently older than their domestic compeers and often have held responsible professional positions in their home countries, adjustment to the student culture may be particularly difficult. Foreign students must adjust also to a different culture. For the majority of foreign students who come from the Third World and are studying in an industrialized country, this cultural adjustment is often quite substantial. Differences in the role of families, variations in norms and values and a range of variations are all part of the adjustment equation. Elements of this process of adjustment have been well documented in the literature on cross-cultural migration. The fact that most foreign students see themselves as temporary migrants may add to the tension, since they are not trying to permanently assimilate to the host society.

Cultural adjustment issues include coping with new social norms and values, with modes of social interaction, with food (a substantial concern among foreign students, according to the literature, relates to food and the availability of familiar traditional foods), with living conditions and related matters. Where familiarity with the language of the host country is limited, as it is for a significant proportion of the foreign student population on arrival in the host country, coping with a new and unfamiliar environment becomes even more difficult.

The fact is that coping with the student culture, which might be seen as a kind of "delayed adolescence," with adaptation to a new cultural and social environment, with new norms, frequently with language difficulties and very often with loneliness caused by the absence of family members is virtually predestined to create significant problems of adjustment. It is perhaps surprising that most foreign students adjust so well under these circumstances!

Special Third World Problems

The problems faced by students from the Third World studying in industrialized nations are especially intense. They not only must contend with the difficulties described earlier, but the depth of the adjustment is typically greater. The cultural, social and economic circumstances of the "home" and "host" societies are frequently substantial. Distances, both psychological and physical, are great. Financial problem for students who are self-funded (and sometimes even for government sponsored students as in the case of Nigeria in recent years) are sometimes severe, adding significantly to tensions. Third World cultures are often more family oriented and, in general, traditional in their outlook, and the gulf between the student's background values and the practices in the industrialized world may be quite large.

Third World students are often quite conscious of racial issues. In a significant number of cases, students suffer from some racial discrimination, ranging from minor and often unintended incidents to bias in housing or even in academic matters. Racial stereotyping and discrimination is, of course, a major concern for many Third World students and adds considerable to the psychological burden of foreign study and of adjustment to a culture where they are in a minority.

Living conditions, including both accommodations and food (which looms large among the concerns of Third World students) are often perceived as difficulties. Suitable accommodation is often linked with finances--locating inexpensive housing in many Western university settings is difficult. For students living in university dormitories and hostels, there are different but nonetheless vexing problems of adjusting to the life-styles of domestic students and related matters.

There are, of course, major variations among Third World students and it is inappropriate to generalize too broadly. For example, students from affluent and urban families may adjust quite easily to life in the West even if their country of origin is quite poor. Such students are often fluent in English (or French) because these languages are widely used among elites in some Third World nations. Third World students who have attended academic institutions which use a Western language may also have an easier time of adjustment. Students who come from academic systems which have close relations to those in the host countries may also find adjustment easier. For example, students from India may have an easier time in understanding the

British academic system than the French or American systems. Students from urban environments will typically have better adjustment skills than those from rural areas. Thus, it is impossible to generalize about Third World students, or even about students from specific Third World countries. By understanding the nuances of adjustment potential, it may be possible for academic institutions in the industrialized nations to choose students from the Third World who would best suit their academic programs and facilities.

It is clear that students from the Third World have a special, and in general, more difficult, problems of adjustment than foreign students from industrialized nations. It is important to understand the specific "Third World" nature of these problems, and then to analyze the nuances within specific student population groups from different Third World countries and even within those countries.

Patterns of Adjustment

More than two decades ago, the U-curve hypothesis was developed, based on research on foreign student adjustment of European students in the United States. This hypothesis argued that there are fairly typical patterns of psychological adjustment stages that foreign students go through during their sojourns abroad. Later research on more diverse foreign student populations, however, has largely discredited the U-curve theory. It is very difficult to identify generalizable patterns of adjustment that are valid for large groups of foreign students from different countries, in different fields of study and from different social classes. Lacking valid measures of adjustment, it is difficult to generalize about how adjustment takes place—and concomitantly how to assist students through what is an important phase of their study abroad.

Much of the practical concern about foreign student adjustment has related to the early period in the host country—a time of considerable stress when it is necessary to become oriented to a new academic system as well as a new country. Available research indicates that this period is probably the one of greatest difficulty. Beyond this, however, there is little agreement concerning patterns of adjustment. We do not know with any degree of generalizability if students go through different stages of adjustment, discontent or psychological stress during the different phases of their sojourn. We have some information about small groups of students from specific nationality groups, but virtually no large scale research and very little cross-national insight.

An Adjustment for Partial Inaction

It is clear that appropriate adjustment is needed for the successful completion of any academic program and that foreign students, particularly those from the Third World, face a specific set of rather daunting challenges. However, I have pointed out that our knowledge base, despite considerable research on the psychology of foreign students, is inadequate. Further, I have indicated that the nexus of issues involved with adjustment is extraordinarily complex and manifold. Elements of these issues affect different groups of foreign students differently. I have also argued that students, regardless of their nationality or place of study, face problems of adjustment and that the student status is a problematic one.

The history of the university may also provide some useful lessons. The medieval European universities, which are after all the antecedents of contemporary academic institutions throughout the world, were from the beginning international institutions with large numbers of foreign students. Indeed, many of the earliest universities had close to a majority of their students who were not citizens of the country in which the university was located. These early universities, including the Universities of Paris and Bologna which provided the basic models for European higher education, had no student services at all. Foreign students organized themselves into "nations" and provided for their own needs—physical and psychological. The university has only one responsibility—to provide instruction, to examine students and to award degrees. There were no dormitories or hostels. There was virtually no administrative apparatus. Contemporary European universities have only slowly moved away from this "minimalist" approach to student services and have recently begun to take more concern for the extracurricular lives of their students. We have little data concerning whether foreign students in the medieval period had more adjustment problems than contemporary students or even whether foreign students in modern Europe fared worse than their compeers in North America or even in Britain, where there has traditionally been more concern for student service and the extracurricular lives of students. Countries like France have traditionally hosted large numbers of foreign students (as a proportion of the student population, France hosts more students than does the United States, Canada or Britain). Yet, France has traditionally not provided much in terms of assistance with foreign student adjustment—although it subsidizes the cost of higher education for all students, including foreign students. If foreign students over the centuries have survived in Europe and have not had dramatically more serious problems of adjustment than has been the case in North America, then perhaps there are some lessons to be learned.

The state of current research on foreign student adjustment is inadequate. Despite a large amount of scattered research relating to different aspects of adjustment and focusing on a variety of small groups of students from different nationalities, there is little that is generalizable. We do not know whether the health, adjustment or psychological problems of foreign students is significantly greater than for domestic students. We do not know with any accuracy which groups of foreign students are most prone to problems.

Despite the lack of data, a few things seem fairly clear. One is that it is very useful for foreign students to be well informed about their academic program, about the university system and insofar as possible about the host culture prior to arrival. Good orientation programs are important and useful. Facility with the language of the host country is also very crucial. If language competency is not obtained prior to arrival, then it should be ensured through special programs. The Soviet Union is a good model of this latter approach to language competency.

There are some key pressures which make extensive programs to assist with foreign student adjustment difficult. The numbers of foreign students has grown significantly in the past several decades—with an estimated one million students studying outside their borders, the majority of whom are from Third World nations. The cost of providing significant and professional services to these students is very large and it is not entirely clear how these services should be directed or to which groups. There is strong pressure in many of the host countries to cut down on the expense of educating students from abroad. Britain, Australia and Canada have all significantly increased fees for foreign students. Budget-minded state legislatures in the United States have cut student services in general and do not look favorably on expenditures for foreign students. It may well be impractical to increase services for foreign students.

An Agenda for Action

While recognizing that it may not be possible to provide the kind of service or expertise that would significantly ameliorate adjustment problems at the present time, there are several things that can be done to build a knowledge base and prepare a possible future agenda for action. A basic need is for research—studies of sufficiently large groups of students in different host countries and from a range of sending nations. Just as important, it is crucial to identify important groups within the foreign student population—including women students, refugee students, students from rural backgrounds and others—for systematic research. There is an urgent need for generalizable data concerning the various aspects of foreign student adjustment issues—and indeed the psychological, social and economics aspects of the experience of overseas study. We must go inside the "black box" of the experience in a systematic way. There is also a need for comparative research on how different countries have handled foreign student adjustment questions. Approaches differ significantly—the Soviet Union and France are particularly important examples. Most of our current data comes from the United States, Britain and Canada. We also need to understand policy—at the national as well as the institutional levels—concerning foreign student services in general and adjustment issues in particular. There has been a continuing concern, especially among donor agencies, relating to the relevance of foreign study and the use made of expertise obtained overseas in the Third World. This is also a theme—related to adjustment questions—which deserves further elaboration.

It is clear that foreign students must be able to cope with the experience of foreign student if they are to successfully complete their academic programs and if they are to benefit from their sojourns. Beyond this generalization, there is relatively little that is clear about the specifics of foreign student adjustment. It is, perhaps, time to go back to the basics and consider the key issues as well as the practical policy alternatives.

Note

This paper reflects on a broad scope of literature relating to foreign student adjustment. It is informed by three major bibliographical studies—Seth Spaulding and Michael Flack, *The World's Students in the United States: A Review and Evaluation of Research on Foreign Students* (New York: Praeger, 1976), Philip G. Altbach, David Kelly and Y. G. M. Lulat, *Research on Foreign Students and International Study: An Overview and Bibliography* (New York: Praeger, 1985) and Philip G. Altbach and Jing Wang, *Foreign Students and International Study: Bibliography and Analysis 1984-1988* (Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1988). See also Motoko Y. Lee, et al., *Needs of Foreign Students from Developing Nations at U.S. Colleges and Universities* (Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1981) and Luiz Saverino Macedo de Oliveira, "Foreign Students' Adjustment in the United States: A Review and Synthesis of Doctoral Dissertations, 1956-1980" (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Vanderbilt University, 1982).

12

INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND MEASURES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS IN SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES: SUMMARY OF COUNTRY REPORTS*

OECD/CERI Secretariat

Introduction

As noted in the SCOPE AND ISSUES paper for the Seminar (CERI/IE/88.02), significant attempts have been made at the institutional level in many OECD countries to specifically serve the educational and social/cultural adjustment needs of foreign students. Institutions of higher education have sought to develop appropriate course structures, contents of studies and teaching methods for students with quite varied background and interests. Also, programmes have been introduced specifically to facilitate the social, cultural and academic adaptation of foreign students in host countries and institutions, and to ease their re-entry into home countries.

For the purposes of the Seminar, and this summary report, the policies and practices are divided into three main areas:

- Institutional policies for foreign students
- Specific measures and programmes for foreign students
- Social and cultural adjustment by foreign students

A summary of policies and practices in selected Member countries, as described in country reports and available documents, are presented below. The summary is not intended to be synthetic or analytic. Rather, the positions and views expressed in the country reports are summarised to facilitate the discussion of experiences, policies, problems and practices in Member countries.

Institutional Policies toward Foreign Students

Purposes of Foreign Student Enrollment

---

* Paper presented as a synthesis of country reports.

"Why do institutions accept foreign students?" The stated reasons range from widely accepted views of the nature and purposes of higher education to more narrowly-framed practical concerns about the need to sustain individual academic programmes or institutions.

In some countries, universities have been traditionally considered international institutions by definition, and the presence of foreign students is taken for granted. Education of foreign students is seen as an integral part of a general objective of "internationality" i.e. international cooperation in educational fields. Although internationality has been considered as a matter of course, the main rationale for foreign students seems to lie in *the academic and cultural benefits* gained by cross-cultural exchanges and activities.

In *Germany*, for example, the federal and Länder governments, as well as individual higher education institutions, take the view that the enrollment and education of foreign students is desirable and necessary for scientific, economic and institutional advances in the medium and long term. In more concrete terms, it is believed that such international exchanges contribute to the quality of research and academic study.

In *Australia*, higher education institutions look to foreign students as a means to broaden and enrich the cultural and academic character of their campuses for the benefit of Australian staff and students. The *Canadian* report argues that international exchange is important for the "academic health" of the institutions, and it is believed that foreign students contribute to the life and work of higher education institutions by bringing perspectives and experiences different from those of domestic students. This rationale also obtains in the *United States*, where institutions of higher education have justified the enrollment of foreign students in terms of its contribution to the goal of internationalising the curriculum and widening the experience of domestic students through contact with individuals from other nations.

In *Switzerland*, where more than one-third of the full-time senior teaching staff at universities and nearly one-fifth of the student body are of foreign nationalities, "academic mobility" is emphasized. Mobility, the Swiss report argues, promotes the development of students and young scholars as well as the general acquisition of knowledge. Not only domestic students but also the higher education institutions themselves profit from the presence of foreign students.

At Wageningen Agricultural University, which is described in detail in the *Dutch* report, the main stated benefit of the presence of foreign students is a more appropriate and relevant international environment in which to educate domestic students. In this University, where 20% of the Dutch students study topics related to the tropics and are expected to work in this area in the future, it is expected that the staff and domestic students will benefit from the presence of foreign students whose experiences and points of view often lead to different and important insights. Interestingly, it is the staff and domestic students who express the view that they can benefit from the knowledge and experiences brought from overseas.

Institutions of higher education also may accept foreign students to meet a perceived *obligation to contribute to the development of less developed countries*. In *Canada*, higher education institutions feel "a moral obligation" to assist the educational and economic development of other nations. The enrollment of foreign students helps to fulfill this obligation. In *Australia*, the provision of education for as wide a segment of the international community as possible, especially for less developed countries, is seen as fundamental to the concept and purposes of higher education institutions.

In the *Netherlands*, "training for development" in foreign student education has been emphasized. The government has always considered higher education to be an important component of overall development assistance. This belief was given extra emphasis in March 1988, when the government assigned a new high priority to increased international cooperation in a White Paper. Importantly, the Dutch report notes that the government and institutions of higher education have reached a consensus on the role of higher education in international development and exchange. The government's White Paper is thus seen as confirmation of an interest already present in higher education institutions themselves.

In *Japan*, although the two main reasons to accept foreign students also apply, it would be more appropriate to look at the recent promotion of foreign student education in the context of *the broader overall movement toward internationalisation* in all political, economic, social and cultural fields. According to the Japanese report, many people in the Japanese higher education institutions think that "educating foreign students is a mission of the university in the age of internationalisation." Similarly, in *Finland*, it is argued that the present need to pay more attention to international cooperation arises mainly from the intensive internationalisation of other sectors. Growing internationalisation in the country, therefore, makes new demands on institutions of higher education.

The Effects of Foreign Students on Institutions of Higher Education

The three purposes for accepting foreign students overlap and give a broad rationale for the provision of higher education to foreign students. To a greater or lesser extent, the presence of foreign students at institutions of higher education has served these purposes, as well as objectives more narrowly-determined in terms of the direct effects of foreign students on teaching and research.

With respect to the broad purposes, a number of country reports mentioned that foreign students help to *create an international atmosphere* at institutions of higher education. The *Australian* report referred to "a sense of internationalism" brought to campuses by foreign students, especially to some of the very large universities. In *Canada,* most institutions consider the presence of foreign students to be the primary factor in "creating an international atmosphere on campus," and some institutions have specific programmes to encourage contact and exchange between foreign and domestic students.

In many *Japanese* higher education institutions, it has been widely recognised that the actual formal and informal cross-cultural encounters on campus between domestic students/staff members and foreign students with different cultural backgrounds have broaden "the global perspective" of both groups. The Japanese report also points out that "the overall internationalisation of the institutions" including establishment of an office and/or faculty committees for international exchange, construction of international houses, cooperation with local communities for foreign students (e.g., host family programmes), changes in attitudes and motivation of the staff members and domestic students, etc., has been stimulated by the increase of foreign students.

More specific effects on *teaching* were mentioned in many country reports. However, a number of the reports acknowledged that the effects are difficult to measure. At most institutions, as noted in the report from *Germany*, foreign students themselves have not had major formal influence on the design of teaching and research in higher education (except for some limited influence through the elected student representatives). Moreover, the effect will vary across institutions, field of study, levels of education (undergraduate or postgraduate), and percentage of foreign students, among other factors.

In the *United States*, where the higher education system itself is so heterogeneous and diverse, a clear understanding of the curricular impact can only be achieved by carrying out micro-level assessment of individual courses/programmes. The *Australian* report similarly argues that the effects of the enrollment of foreign students on course content and methods vary. At the postgraduate level, the effects are less in those degree programmes not designed wholly or largely for foreign students.

A number of country reports noted *the improvement of the teaching content and methods by individual professors*. Professors changed their courses partly in response to the presence of foreign students and the broader international perspective which they brought to the classroom. In *Japan*, university education has often been criticised for a narrow teaching style characterised by too little discussion, too much translation and too little systematic instruction for students' study and research. This style is still used, it is argued, because faculty have not fully adjusted to the advent of "mass" higher education. The presence of foreign students, who are usually more vocal and demanding than Japanese students, has been contributing to a gradual changes in teaching methods and contents.

The *Dutch* report emphasizes the impact of foreign students on the *learning of domestic students*. In the Wageningen Agricultural University, Dutch postgraduate students benefit from studying with highly talented and capable foreign students. The foreign students are quite carefully selected, are usually some years older than domestic students, and have some professional experience. In the classrooms, the Dutch students often learn "the reality" from foreign students.

Foreign students affect teaching through the *development of special programmes/centres for development or international studies*. The *Canadian* report notes that curricula are modified in these programmes specifically to take into account the interests and needs of foreign students. However, new contents and methods may find their way into regular academic programmes.

The country reports mentioned a range of specific effects of foreign students on *research*. Foreign students make substantial contributions to the research effort as a source of *manpower*. In *Australia*, it is generally agreed that postgraduate foreign students have been making a significant contribution to the national research effort. In *Canada*, the research assistance provided by foreign students is commonly acknowledged to be important to the quality of research although there has been no accepted assessment of the value of this work. In the *United States*, it is reported that in some postgraduate courses/programmes, especially certain fields in engineering, foreign students are dominant and carrying out a major part of research assistance work.

Similarly, The *Dutch* report argues that with different cultural backgrounds, foreign students are often *a source of new ideas/inspiration* in approaching problems and finding original solutions, especially at the Ph.D. level. In *Australia*, academic staff are also seen to benefit from the involvement of foreign students with experience and expertise in their research activities. In *Switzerland*, the presence of foreign students is believed to be indispensable for the development of research, especially that of young scholars.

Another important aspect of the research impact of foreign students is their *contribution to research work related to their home countries*. The Australian report notes that postgraduate foreign students are sometimes encouraged to work on a project concerned with needs in their home countries and/or on cooperative programmes between the Australian institution and an institution in the home country. In *Japan*, many postgraduate foreign students are also involved in research work related to specific problems and needs in their home countries, especially in the fields of engineering, geography, tropical medicine, architecture, agriculture, sociology, etc. Their contributions within Japanese universities include the introduction of new problems/issues for research, assistance in joint research projects through their knowledge and expertise, and the establishment of new academic networks between Japanese and home country researchers.

These generally positive effects attributed to the presence of foreign students are balanced by a range of problems associated with their participation in the classroom and their involvement in teaching and research. Although the country reports did not go into great detail in describing the problems, the same difficulties were noted in nearly every country report. They can be listed as follows:

Admission of foreign students

- difficulties with setting appropriate admission criteria to ensure maintenance of standards and success rates
- a paucity of adequate information available to potential foreign students about admission requirements, institutional courses and capabilities as well as living conditions in the host country
- imbalance of foreign student distribution in terms of the countries of origin
- imbalance of foreign student distribution in terms of regions and institutions where they are studying

Quality of foreign students

- language difficulties

- weakness in basic sciences and mathematics

Teaching and administration

- lack of funds for expanding the teaching staff and for fellowships
- different approaches to learning and teaching
- additional demands on teaching staff and on student support services

Social and cultural problems

- social and cultural adjustment difficulties of foreign students
- lack of cross-cultural awareness among staff members

Apart from these issues, *the administration* of institutions of higher education is also affected by the presence of foreign students. Many higher education institutions have responded by introducing new administrative arrangements such as the establishment of special offices and the appointment of foreign student advisers. In the *United States*, two dimensions of this institutional impact and response have been noted. The first dimension concerns how far institutions assume the responsibility to accommodate the needs and interests of foreign students, and the second dimension concerns how far the responsibilities are decentralised in each institution to the school, department, programme, and professor. The magnitude of the impact and the degree of response vary according to the decision taken within institutions along these two dimensions.

Financial Aspects

Financial aspects represent a separate, if related, domain of institutional policies toward foreign students. In the countries where host governments fully finance the instructional budgets of higher education institutions, there is very little interest in the financial dimension of foreign student enrollments. In *Germany*, for example, foreign students are not considered as a special source of income for the individual institutions since there is no tuition charge. However, through the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and other agencies, the Federal Government provides higher education institutions with funds for maintaining counselling services for foreign students. Such support clearly eases the institution's ability to respond to demands placed on administrative and counselling services.

It is quite natural that higher education institutions in the countries where full-fee programme charges have been implemented tend to see foreign students as an important *source of institutional income*. In *Australia*, the response to foreign students as full-fee, revenue generating programmes has increased in importance. The attitude of institutions toward foreign student enrollments has become more positive after the introduction of the full-fee programmes, and some institutions are modifying admission procedures and providing special services to attract more foreign students. Importantly, the new fee policies for foreign students is seen as foreshadowing changes in the overall basis of the funding of institutions.

There are, as well, enrollment implications related to the financial considerations just discussed. Institutions in the *United States*, *Australia* and the *Netherlands* now look to foreign students to *compensate for the decline in the enrollment of domestic students*. The Dutch report says that shortages of domestic students made the enrollment of foreign students financially more interesting than previously. The Australian report argues that particular contributions to higher education institutions by foreign students include the sustenance of programmes experiencing a decline in enrollments and the provision of the clientele for specialist subjects which could not otherwise be justified.

In the *United States*, it is reported that the dependence on fees of foreign students presents a dilemma. A number of institutions levy foreign student fees in the forms of special application fees, fees for English language assessment, service fees, etc. However, when it is necessary to attract more foreign students to balance sagging enrollments of domestic students, these kinds of differential charges are said to be difficult to sustain.

Cost/Benefit of Foreign Students

Given the apparent balancing between the benefits to the institution from foreign students and the problems their presence creates, assessments of the relative benefits and costs would seem to be necessary. However, only a few country reports touched upon this topic and, in most cases, the discussions in the reports were limited to economic/financial aspects. In some countries, this is simply not an important aspect.

In *Germany*, a discussion about the (financial) costs and benefits to the individual institution is considered less relevant, since there is no tuition charge and foreign students do not provide a special source of income for the individual institution. The *Canadian* report argues that little information on the costs and benefits of the presence of foreign students for individual institutions is available and no institution has made public any estimate of the economic benefits of foreign students.

Some other countries, if not all the individual institutions in these countries, appear to have framed the question more broadly and concluded that the benefits, financial and intangible, are far greater than the costs and that detailed cost/benefit analyses are not necessary. In *Japan*, considering the present Japanese attitude toward internationalisation, a discussion about the costs and benefits of foreign students does not seem to be necessary at this stage of rapid growth of foreign student education.

When the question is framed more explicitly to define and assess less tangible benefits and implicit costs for institutions, the calculus is not so clear. In *Canada*, and even in *Japan*, some institutions show certain reluctance to enroll more foreign students. According to the *Japanese* report, a small percentage of university staff wants to restrict the number of foreign students in their institutions. The increase in the numbers of foreign students, it is being argued, taxes the capacities of universities in terms of space, facilities and staff. For these staff and their institutions, the perceived costs of foreign students apparently exceed the anticipated benefits.

Current Trends in Government Policies and Their Effects on Institutions

Although the second international Seminar in Hiroshima specifically takes up institutional policies and programmes, current trends in government policies toward foreign students have been noted since these policies affect the policies and practices of higher education institutions. A wide array of government policies directly or indirectly affect institutions and influence attitudes toward foreign students. However, based on the country reports, the two areas of government policies which most frequently affected institutional policies/practices and attitude toward foreign student enrollment are the *control of admission* and *tuition fees*.

In some countries, governments have been taking measures to attract more foreign students and to encourage the institutions to positively admit them. In *Japan*, for example, as has been noted in the preceding sections, the government has been carrying out an ambitious project to increase the number of foreign students to 100,000 by the end of this century, a fivefold increase from 1987. Reactions to this government objective by the institutions are generally positive.

The *Netherlands* is another example of a country where internationalisation is strongly promoted by the government. In the recent White Paper the Dutch government suggested that "internationalisation" should be used as one of the criteria for assessing the institutions' activities and plans for the future.

The Dutch report argues that the new government policies proposed in the White Paper are expected to further encourage institutions to take additional measures in favour of internationalisation in general, and foreign students in particular.

Government policies encouraging greater foreign student enrollments do not always enjoy the support of individual institutions of higher education. In *Canada*, for example, the Federal Government has been active in promoting the country's role in international education and training, following the establishment of a federal interdepartmental working committee for this purpose. Foreign student education has also been encouraged by such organisations as the Canadian International Development Agency in cooperation with other relevant governmental organisations. It is, however, argued in the Canadian report that there is some apprehension among the institutions that the demands on their educational provision for any new international schemes promoted by other governmental or non-governmental organisations might prove beyond their capacity. The institutions suggested that ample provision be made in such proposals to compensate them for any added burden.

In other countries, governments seeking to discourage enrollments do so through restrictive admissions, with the stated purposes of maintaining the quality of foreign students and/or keeping a sufficient number of places for domestic students. In Germany, for example, individual higher education institutions take the responsibility for the admission procedures of foreign students based on the country-by-country "Recommendations" (assessment of foreign secondary school certificates) issued by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Culture of the Länder (KMK). In 1981, KMK decided at the height of a dramatic increase of applicants from some "problem countries," to supplement the Recommendations for these countries, introducing some additional requirements. This has obviously influenced the admission procedures in the institutions and resulted in a downward trend of foreign student enrollment.

The government policies are not limited only to attempts to set the total number of foreign students. In *Germany*, policy discussions and/or recommendations of the Länder and Federal government increasingly have taken the view that a more balanced national composition of foreign students should be achieved. For the sake of a desirable national balance, the Dutch government has a list of "target countries" which enjoy some preferential treatment in admissions.

As to government policies related to fees, the *Australian* report provides a good description of the effects of government policies on institutions. In this country, a decision was made by the government in 1973 to abolish fees for both Australian and foreign students. This resulted in major development of programmes for foreign students in institutions, as well as an increase in the number of foreign students. However, the growth of foreign and domestic enrollments brought about serious financial strains on the higher education system. In 1979, another governmental decision was made to impose a charge only on foreign students. The policy eased the enrollment pressures in higher education. Finally, a new policy introduced in 1985, which enabled higher education institutions to admit full-fee students and to retain revenue from the fees, encouraged institutions to promote full-fee programmes and to recruit foreign students to such programmes.

Another example of a government policy related to fees is the "full-cost" policy of the *United Kingdom*, which has been in effect since 1980. While the United kingdom continued to welcome foreign students and to recognise the importance of such an undertaking, not only for the students concerned but also for its institutions of higher education and the country at large, the number of foreign students was perceived as a financial burden on the nation. After the introduction of the full-cost policy, it is now argued in the United Kingdom that there is widespread regret in universities that financial motives have become confused with educational reasons for accepting foreign students. On the other hand, however, it is said that the interest in and attractiveness of short, full-cost courses for foreign students have improved, and that full-cost fees in the publicly funded sector have made private institutions more competitive and positive toward foreign student admissions.

Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students

What specific arrangements have been developed to meet the educational needs of foreign students? The country reports provide descriptions of a wide array of measures, ranging from specific admissions arrangements to special degree programmes and, ultimately, programme evaluation. While the measures and programmes noted here refer to those developed specifically in response to the enrollment of foreign students, it should be kept in mind that these measures usually reflect a balance among interests of the foreign students, their governments or sponsors, the host institutions, and individual professors, among others.

Information and Admission

For many countries, arrangements to improve the quantity, timeliness and quality of *information* for potential foreign students absorb considerable time and effort. The effort is, generally, quite decentralised and diffuse. In *Germany*, embassies, overseas offices of the German Academic Exchange Service, Göethe institutes (providing instruction in German as a foreign language), the overseas offices of political foundations and German teaching staff abroad serve in a loosely coordinated network to provide information to prospective foreign students. The German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), along with some of the Länder and individual institutions, prepare brochures and other information materials for distribution through these channels. The Federal Government has recently launched a research project on possible ways to improve the flow of information.

In *Australia*, host institutions arrange pre-departure briefings in the students' home countries. The Australian Trade Commission independently organises recruitment programmes in countries of key strategic and economic importance. Most recently, following the introduction of full-fee programmes, many institutions of higher education appointed representatives in foreign countries to "market" their programmes to potential foreign students. In this case, the provision of information is one aspect of an overall marketing strategy.

In *Canada*, some universities draw on volunteers who provide information to newly-admitted foreign students on the institution they will attend and on life in Canada. This information is sent by letter before they leave their countries.

Procedures for *admission* vary considerably among institutions and systems of higher education, but all have taken steps to ensure that foreign student applicants are appropriately evaluated and placed.

Institutions which have no entrance examinations depend largely on the foreign secondary school leaving certificates for admission of foreign students. But, these credentials are now even more carefully reviewed. In *Germany*, the marks of the school leaving certificate are converted by means of standardized procedures and assessed by the Länder authorities. This procedure is based on the "Recommendations" of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Culture of the Länder (KMK). To facilitate the decision-making procedure, KMK has established three categories of countries. These broad categories are differentiated further on the basis of agreements on equivalence of certificates and academic achievements, developed individually with foreign countries.

In *Germany*, and in other countries where institutions of higher education rely mainly on foreign certificates and academic records as the main criterion for admission procedures, bilateral agreement and cooperation between countries and/or institutions have proven to be both necessary and effective.

In *Switzerland*, all higher education institutions are autonomous in the evaluation and recognition of secondary school leaving certificates received in foreign countries. However, applicants lacking proper certificates can also sit for one of the entrance examinations held twice a year in Fribourg.

The use of standardized or individual admissions tests for foreign students is more common in countries with a tradition for such procedures for all students. In the *United States*, while such standardized tests as SAT and GRE have been under criticism for their validity and reliability, these tests continue to be used because their overall predictive value appears to be good. The principal criticism lodged against the use of these tests is that they are better predictors of failure rather than of success.

In *Japan*, an independent entrance examination by each university is the usual requirement for admissions. Many universities, however, give different or additional examinations to foreign students. Some students may be asked to take an oral and/or an essay examination, and others may sit for a subject examination in English. The range of examinations increases at the postgraduate level. Some graduate programmes admit foreign students without strict testing of Japanese language proficiency.

In the *United States*, the balance of responsibility for the admission decision between the faculty and administrators, e.g., foreign student admission officers, remains an unsettled issue at many higher education institutions. This balance is important because foreign student admission officers often have more expertise in immigration issues, assessment of foreign certificates and language proficiency, while the faculties have the ultimate academic responsibility.

Finally, in some countries there have been various experiences of *a probation* or *trial-admission systems* for foreign students. In the *Netherlands*, all the candidates are initially on probation. After four months, academic performance is reviewed and admission is formally approved or denied. Relatively few foreign students admitted on probation fail to be retained.

Trial-admission programmes are increasingly used in the *United States*, partly in response to concerns about the credentials of foreign students and about their preparation in the language of instruction and for the larger social and psychological adjustment required. Trial-admission programmes are more common at the postgraduate level; in some fields, Master's degree programmes are used for this purpose. While the advantages brought by trial-admissions are obvious for the institutions, the benefits for foreign students are less clear.

Language Preparation

The problems arising from lack of facility in the language of instruction differ among students and over time and are generally understood. The *Australian* report observes that undergraduates tend to have greater problems than graduate students. For the former, there is immediate and constant pressure for competence in speaking, listening, reading and writing across a broad range of subject areas. Postgraduates face fewer demands (but obtain less fluency) because they often work in isolation or with a small group of fellow students, and partly because they are older and tend to be accompanied by their families.

Similarly, the *Dutch* report points out that the language problems tend to subside during the course of the first year but emerge in a difficult form in the second year when students have to write theses. The *Australian* report similarly argues that foreign students initially confront difficulties in speaking and listening. As the courses are well under way, students find it difficult to comprehend written materials. The most complex task, that of constructing and presenting a written academic assignment or thesis, is encountered somewhat later in the course.

Measures taken by institutions to cope with these problems vary. The most common approaches include the strict screening of foreign student applicants before admission, special language classes (preparatory courses before starting regular courses and/or parallel with regular courses), and programmes given in English or other international languages.

Although there seems to be a trend toward increasing the language proficiency requirements for foreign students, institutions or systems of higher education are making efforts to facilitate *the language training of foreign students in their home countries* rather than turning away students lacking command of the language of instruction. *Germany* has adopted this latter approach, through the world wide activities of its Göethe Institute. The Federal Government also has supported the teaching of German at schools and higher education institutions abroad and has promoted programmes which provide in-service training for German language teachers from other countries. The *Japanese* authorities have similarly provided government-sponsored foreign students with preparatory language programmes in some of the sending countries. More than 50 Japanese teachers are sent to China and Malaysia every year to conduct intensive Japanese language training courses.

In almost every OECD country, foreign students may participate in *language training opportunities* before and/or after starting regular programmes. In *Switzerland*, private schools offer preparatory instruction for the language examinations required for admission. Several universities organise language courses parallel with regular courses and as holiday courses. In the *United States*, more than 300 intensive English language programmes offer language instructions to an estimated 24,000 students each year. Most of these programmes are offered at or near colleges or universities.

In the *United Kingdom*, pre-session language courses are becoming popular with foreign students, although the overall take-up is relatively small. Since the cause of low rates of participation is usually a lack of time or funds, some universities are waiving language course fees. However, it is argued that standards of knowledge of English are often ill-defined and vary between institutions and between courses, that English courses for foreign students are not given a high priority, and that often only those students with serious difficulty can expect regular language tuition.

In *Australia*, foreign students take a standardized test (e.g., SST, TOEFL) and, depending on the result, are required to undertake intensive language study for a certain period. In *Japan*, the education authorities support language programmes of one-half or one full year for government-sponsored foreign students. The courses are offered at seven universities throughout the country. Following successful completion of the course, the foreign student will enroll in the university which offers the academic programme to which he/she has been admitted. Once enrolled in their regular academic programmes, foreign students frequently may continue language training at their universities.

More specialised approaches have also been used. Many *Australian* institutions are offering specifically organised *mission-oriented language courses* such as "conversation courses," "thesis writing courses" and "seminar workshops on seminar/conference presentation."

In the *Netherlands*, academic staff are encouraged to modify teaching methods in academic programmes in the first few months. Lecturers are requested to speak slowly, to distribute lecture notes and to test periodically whether the students actually understand the contents of written materials and oral presentations.

The *German* and *Japanese* country reports point to a different approach, in which institutions have begun to offer postgraduate *programmes in English*, the language most widely used in research and teaching. In *Japan*, more than half of the institutions now allow foreign students to prepare degree theses in language other than Japanese, mostly English, in view of foreign students' difficulties in writing the Japanese language. In *Finland*, the need to develop instruction in English was stressed recently by several working groups looking into various aspects of international student exchange. In the *Netherlands*, too, separate International Education programmes have already been developed outside the principal academic programmes. These courses are conducted primarily in English (some in French or Spanish) to accommodate foreign students without facility in the Dutch language.

In the view of some, the problems attributed to a lack of language facility may actually result from other causes. The *Canadian* report argues that foreign students' problems in oral presentations and communication in the classroom are partly linguistic and partly cultural. The *Dutch* report points out that language problems often mask and apparent lack of knowledge: is the student unable to answer in the language of instruction, or does the student simply not know the answer?

Structure and Content of Study Programmes

How do institutions structure and modify the content of study programmes to meet the needs of foreign students?

In most countries, institutions of higher education provide *preparatory courses* or course modules solely for foreign students. In *Australia*, several institutions offer one-year bridging courses or foundation courses to remediate the often limited academic preparation of foreign students. In *Germany*, applicants with weak preparation are enrolled in a one-year preparatory course offered by specialised institutions established for this purpose. The difference between Australia and Germany highlights an important question: should higher education institutions provide this kind of preparatory course?

Relatively few institutions *adapt regular courses* to accommodate foreign students' needs and interests. In *Canada* and *Japan*, few study programmes have been modified. The adaptation of study programmes is mainly done by individual professors. However, more flexible responses are frequently made at the postgraduate level, where foreign students receive more individual attention.

A third approach used by institutions in nearly all countries is the development of special programmes. In *Germany*, several institutions recently introduced specialised "development-oriented" postgraduate study programmes. Although special institutional arrangements and measures for foreign students are found only in courses with a considerable number of foreign students, the Federal Government has been carrying out pilot schemes (such as sandwich programmes, thesis preparation abroad, and practical work period abroad), designed to accommodate the particular needs of foreign students. These projects have been successful and are to be expanded.

In *Australia*, there has been considerable interest in developing "twinning" arrangements with foreign institutions. At the undergraduate level, such twinning arrangements call for the first year of a degree course to be offered in the home country, with subsequent years carried out in the Australian institutions. Faculty from Australian institutions also teach and supervise the academic programme in the sending country.

The "International Education" programmes in the *Netherlands* are well-known as complete sets of study programmes tailored to meet foreign students' special needs. The programmes are based on *assessment of the needs* of foreign students and of their home countries. To acquire knowledge and sensitivity to the needs of the sending countries, Dutch lecturers in the programme acquire considerable practical experience in developing countries through visits and consultancy assignments. Continual feedback through exchanges about the course content among the staff, the students and the sending organisations permit refinement and adaptation in the programmes from year to year.

In the *United States*, "non-degree" study has developed into an important study option for foreign students. The development represents a response to a dilemma in which institutions of higher education resist changes in existing curricular and/or admission requirements for regular study programmes and yet wish to respond to and enroll foreign students. These non-degree programmes may be offered in the language of the foreign students and may even take place in the home countries. However, since foreign student admission has been encouraged at least partly as an attempt to spread the costs of existing programmes over a larger number of students, separate programmes/institutions such as the approach developed in the Netherlands will not be widely introduced because they will not permit the realisation of economics of scale.

Teaching Method

Relatively few institutions or systems of higher education have modified teaching methods specifically in response to foreign student enrollment. Nonetheless, it is recognised as an important problem for the education of foreign students.

The *Australian* report notes that language problems are so obvious and so accepted as a reason for poor academic performance that the other problems arising from differences in cultural attitudes toward knowledge and toward certain styles of teaching and learning are frequently overlooked. The Australian/Anglo-Saxon concept of argument, based on critical analysis and strict linear relevance, is a cultural concept not shared by Asian cultures or even by all European cultures. Yet, many professors in Australian higher education are unaware of these important cultural differences. Currently, many institutions of higher education in the country have put in place programmes to respond to this problem, including special workshops for staff and for incoming foreign students.

In the *United Kingdom*, some students are said to "memorise and regurgitate" while others "are used to being spoon fed" or just accept a teacher's words uncritically. It takes considerable time for foreign students to adjust to a British style of learning and teaching, although the difficulties are thought to be more acute for some national groups than for others.

In the *Netherlands*, foreign students' lack of training in the western approach to science and inability to use knowledge critically and creatively has been noted. Several programmes developed by Wageningen Agricultural University suggest a range of approaches at an institutional level to the problem. The University provides extra tutorial assistance, a second chance to take examinations, and a closer supervision of research for foreign students. The University allocates additional resources to departments with foreign students in support of the additional work. Further, the academic staff meet regularly to discuss the problems and progress of foreign students. In such meetings, staff members with more cross-cultural experience advise less experienced colleagues on the most effective ways to teach and to supervise.

In *Germany* and *Japan*, *tutoring programmes* are increasingly used. In Germany, tutors in institutions of higher education provide general guidance and support in terms of the contents of and terminology used in specific programmes of study. The tutors also teach the necessary learning and work methods. The German report notes that these programmes are particularly useful in overcoming common problems in German universities of a lack of adequate counselling and the lack of direct contact between professor and student. In *Japan*, where the traditional lecture style of education is still dominant, "the tutor system" is common, especially in national universities, and is said to be successful. The tutor is a postgraduate student in the same field as the foreign student and meets the student regularly to help with various matters related to study and/or daily life.

Degree Granting

In general, institutions of higher education have been reluctant to modify the requirements for regular academic degree programmes for foreign students. The *Canadian* report puts the reasons for the reluctance clearly. Requirements for degrees have not been adapted to foreign students' needs because, firstly, it is felt that foreign students coming to Canada to acquire Canadian degrees must compete on an equal basis to receive the degrees, and, secondly, it would violate the academic integrity of the programme and the institution to modify the requirements.

However, there appears to be a trend toward *the introduction of special, separate degrees of certificates* for foreign students. In Germany, new degrees, awarded upon completion of particular courses of study mostly at the graduate level, have been introduced by a number of institutions. Awarded subject to authorisations by the Länder, the degrees respond particularly to the demands of foreign students. In *Australia*, there are an increasing number of "Master-by-course work degrees." The degree certifies a different, broader composition of studies which corresponds with the needs expressed by many foreign students. Moreover, since research-based Master's theses are not required, the programme placed fewer demands on writing and research skills.

At the Wageningen Agricultural University in the *Netherlands*, a different approach has been adopted. Rather than creating a special degree, the University awards an MSc degree upon course completion. The MSc is awarded in place of a Dutch degree. Although these two degrees are equivalent in terms of the access to Ph.D. programmes, the MSc degree was introduced to conform with degrees awarded elsewhere. According to the Dutch report, the MSc better conveys the contents and level of the training to employers and universities in other countries, thus offering improved opportunities for jobs and promotions as well as for admission to Ph.D. programmes elsewhere.

Evaluation

Given the array of specific policies and measures for foreign students identified in Member countries, it is important to take stock of the extent to which approaches and programmes are effective. From the country reports, evaluation methods vary considerably in detail and in level.

In *Germany*, the Federal Ministry of Education and Science has initiated studies on the situation of students from developing countries and on student exchange programmes. In *Canada*, agencies sponsoring and administering programmes for foreign students, such as the Canadian International Development Agency, periodically evaluate their programmes. The evaluations are generally conducted by educational specialists in institutions of higher education and have a limited distribution. In the *Netherlands*, a major evaluation of the programmes introduced to promote the internationalisation of higher education is currently under way. This will be the first biannual report called for in the new Higher Education and Research Plan.

In *Australia*, although a survey of graduates back in their countries was recently carried out by the National Centre for Development Studies, evaluation remains largely an institutional responsibility and most higher education institutions have developed, or are developing, evaluation procedures mainly to meet government requirements for full-fee courses.

At Wageningen Agricultural University in the *Netherlands*, a particularly sophisticated evaluation programme is in place. In this university, a member of the administrative staff with doctoral training in the academic discipline independently evaluates what the foreign students have been taught each term. Data and information are collected through tests, questionnaires and interviews with staff and students. Such aspects as the time spent (by staff and students), student performance, teaching methods, and the relevance of the subjects are examined. Further, alumni of old courses are asked to indicate how the course has been relevant to their careers. The means through which the results of the evaluations are used to modify course contents and methods were not described in the Dutch report.

Social and Cultural Adjustment by Foreign Students

Social and cultural adjustments may be no less important than academic arrangements for increasing the likelihood that foreign students will learn and successfully complete their studies. Such preoccupations as risk of isolation, lack of contact with professors and host country students, maladjustment in community life, etc. are common among foreign students as well as many host countries. Do institutions of higher education take the responsibility of assisting foreign students in adjusting into the host country and enabling re-adjustment for graduates returning home? The response is quite varied, in part because the nature of the problem is viewed differently across countries.

Many countries identified *isolation* as one of the most important problems of adjustment for foreign students. In *Australia*, the foreign students from Asian countries (the largest group) experience homesickness and loneliness during the early months. Since most come from closely-knit families, the Australian social life, social informality, relationships with the opposite sex, and differences in the preference of sports, hobbies and the like reinforce the feeling of separateness and isolation.

The *Canadian* report describes the problem differently. As 60% of foreign students in Canada come from only 10 countries (25% of the total from Hong Kong), the majority of foreign students easily benefit from a ready-made community of peers from their home countries or regions. This tends to discourage contact between foreign students and host country students/communities and results in the isolation of foreign students. Similar problems are also pointed out in the *United States*.

Some country reports referred to *racism* encountered when foreign students seek accommodation as an important problem.

Perspectives on the problems of cultural and social adjustment also differ according to the way higher education itself is viewed. In *Germany* and *Switzerland*, student life is said to focus much more on individuals, in both academic and social matters. Although foreign students (like domestic students) receive a certain degree of guidance and support from student groups/associations as well as from counsellors, foreign and domestic students are regarded and treated in the same way. It is largely left to the initiative of individual students to shape his/her own social spheres according to individual preferences and needs. In these countries, formal and informal groups of students are playing major roles in coping with foreign students' adjustment problems.

Alternatively, in *Australia*, institutions take greater initiative in responding to foreign students' social and cultural problems. The Australian report argues that the separate legal and, importantly, fee-paying status of foreign students has stimulated development of services and measures for facilitating their social and cultural adjustment.

Orientation Programmes

In some countries, great emphasis is put upon introductory orientation programmes at the beginning of foreign students' study and stay in host countries. Typically, these are organised and offered by institutions of higher education. In the Wageningen Agricultural University in the *Netherlands*, all the foreign students are given a one-week introductory course by a professional staff member trained in and sensitive to the difficulties encountered in cross-cultural contacts. In *Australia*, many institutions provide orientation programmes for foreign students in their home countries before they leave. Organisations other than the universities and colleges such as the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau and the International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges also organise orientation programmes.

In the *United Kingdom*, most institutions offer orientation programmes for foreign students. The programmes include at least an introduction to welfare and administrative staff; a talk from a local police officer; a presentation about life in the country; and course or discipline meetings. However, it is argued that some staff members, especially those in the institutions where there is no organised orientation, who are sceptical of orientation programmes. They suggest that there may be a danger of "bombarding" new foreign students with too much information in the early days of their stay in the country.

In *Canada*, orientation programmes at the beginning of the academic year are commonly used by institutions to provide foreign students with practical information and to counsel them on particular social or cultural problems. In some institutions, orientation seminars are offered throughout the academic year. In *Japan*, foreign students take orientation programmes which provide details on university services and student life in Japan. Many of the programmes are funded separately by the government, and the quality varies greatly.

Counselling

Individual counselling provided by foreign student advisers is another means by which higher education institutions have attempted to respond to problems of social and cultural adjustment. In *Canada*, institutions of higher education have a full-time foreign student adviser. However, due to a lack of resources and relatively large numbers of foreign students on many campuses, the advisers typically provide services and give attention only to those who seek them out, or to cases which are brought to their attention by fellow students. The Canadian report estimates that nearly half of the foreign students are not aware of the existence, let alone services, of foreign student adviser on their campuses.

In *Japan*, foreign student advisers have been appointed at a number of institutions principally over the last five years. Although the number of advisers remains small, the services provided by them have proven to be effective and useful. In *Australia*, many institutions have appointed staff with specific responsibility for the welfare of foreign students and/or special language and study skills advisers.

In several countries, "peer" advisers have been used to ease problems of social and cultural adjustment. In *Canada*, for example, resources are set aside in some institutions for programmes which provide each foreign student with a Canadian partner who serves as a contact person throughout the year. In *Japan* and *Finland*, tutors designated for help in academic matters often help foreign students cope with other problems.

Student Groups

In almost every country, formal and informal groups of students have proven to be quite effective in enabling the smooth adjustment of foreign students to life in the host institution and community. In the Wageningen Agricultural University in the *Netherlands*, newly enrolled foreign students are introduced to students from the same country by the Student Affairs Department. After the introductory course, they are housed in pairs among Dutch students in units of 8 to 12 students. In *Germany*, student parishes and "Studienkollegs" provide the settings for counselling, support of social and cultural integration, and assistance in acquiring the basic methods and techniques of academic study and scientific work.

In *Switzerland*, students' unions specialised in political, scientific or cultural activities are quite common in individual universities. Other student unions have been specifically organised to help foreign students adjust to life in the university. In *Japan*, groups of foreign students, including all such students at a university or limited to students from a single country, have also been very effective in helping foreign students adjust to their host country. Some institutions support these groups by providing facilities, helping print newsletters, and the like. As noted earlier, and in the Japanese report, the groups do not often encourage exchanges with domestic students.

In *Canada*, the effectiveness of foreign student clubs and societies are widely recognised. The majority of foreign student clubs are national or regional in membership, and their purpose is to provide their members with moral support, to organise social events and activities. Some larger groups also provide such services as meeting new students on arrival, helping to find housing, providing advice on study programmes, and financial assistance. To overcome the problem of limited exchange, the clubs adopt and reflect a university-wide view. Membership of some clubs and societies is open to all students, and they often receive financial assistance from the institution's central students' association. The clubs organise social events and activities to bring foreign and Canadian students together.

Contact with Local Community

In most countries, local community organisations have been quite active in establishing contact with, and easing the adjustment of foreign students. In some countries, the arrangements are highly organised. Under the auspices of the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau, there is an active chain of "Councils for Overseas Students" established in all main centres of *Australia*. These Councils play an important role in promoting social events, local tours and family friendship schemes aimed at foreign students. Under less formal arrangements, community religious groups, service organisations such as Rotary and Apex, various youth clubs and organisations offer hospitality to foreign students.

In *Canada*, several universities have taken the lead in organising a community association to coordinate programmes directed toward foreign students. The University of Toronto, for example, has an extensive network of local families who are available to provide a variety of services ranging from finding accommodation, to learning about banking and shopping customs, to participating in cultural activities. The Canadian International Development Agency(IDA) also encourages community programmes. The IDA plans to increase its support to community groups throughout Canada which involve foreign students in their public education activities.

In *Canada*, comprehensive and coordinated programmes have also been established by local municipal authorities. In Windsor, Ontario, foreign students in the local university and community college serve as volunteers in international festivals and other community programmes offered by the Community's Multicultural Association. The community people organised a special fund to help foreign students. The fund's managing committee includes senior representatives from the city, the police, the local immigration office, religious groups and business groups.

Staff Training

A number of country reports provided descriptions on special training programmes for faculty and staff who work with and assist foreign students. The *Dutch* country report argues that only staff members who have worked in a developing country for a comparable length of time without their families can fully appreciate the adjustment problems faced by foreign students. Given that such experiences are not shared widely within the staff, programmes to increase the staff members' awareness of cross cultural problems have proven effective.

In *Australia*, institutions of higher education also offer such programmes. One large university recently organised a two-day intensive workshop on communications for people involved in counselling or other support services for foreign students. Inter-institutional workshops and conferences to share experiences, to evaluate innovative approaches, and to explore the scope for cooperative activities among the institutions are also held regularly throughout Australia.

Other Support System

To what extent are support services, such as housing assistance, working permits, emergency funds, available for foreign students? According to the country reports, these services, to varying degrees, are commonly available.

In *Japan*, where *accommodation* is one of the most critical problems faced by foreign students, the government has launched a new set of measures to improve housing of foreign students. The initiatives include direct financial support to foreign students who rent apartments or private homes, assistance to local municipalities to arrange public housing for foreign students, and special tax exemption for private companies which offer their personnel dormitories to foreign students. In *Finland*, all university towns have a student housing foundation or a corresponding organisation, which take care of accommodation of foreign students instead of the institutions.

In some countries, the housing assistance is largely provided by the institutions of higher education. In the *United Kingdom*, for example, all the universities have some accommodation facilities at their disposal, and priority is usually given to those "away from home for the first time" or "new to the area," a description which includes new foreign students. However, the housing of foreign postgraduate students with families, especially in large cities, is one of the biggest problems in the country.

Regulations in most countries tightly restrict *the ability of foreign students to work* in the host country. Where they are permitted to work, foreign students are limited to assistantships or work during long vacation periods. In *Canada*, the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission recently introduced changes in the regulations governing foreign students' employment. Under this new policy, foreign students are now allowed to be employed in any job on campus, and can also accept employment directly related to their studies for a maximum of one year after successful completion of their studies. Their spouses also have unrestricted access to the general labour market. Institutions are helping foreign students obtain employment authorisation under the new system.

Many institutions offer other assistance to foreign students such as *emergency funds* and *health/medical services*. The responsibility for these services differ among institutions and systems of higher education. In *Switzerland*, student unions assume the primary responsibility, playing important roles. In other countries, such as *Japan*, special foundations, organisations or associations, cooperating with the institutions, provide the services. In *Australia*, access to certain Australian social services for foreign students is currently under review.

PART III

SUMMARY PAPERS

Discussions and Rapporteurs' Reports

13

INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES TOWARDS THE FLOW OF FOREIGN STUDENTS: A SUMMARY OF PANEL DISCUSSION

Kazuhiro Ebuchi

Introduction

The panel discussion session on the second half of the first day started with a presentation by Mr. Kaoru Okamoto, from the OECD/CERI Secretariat. In this report he summarized the country reports relating to the topic of institutional policies towards foreign students. Following this presentation, five panelists gave brief five-minute statements of what they considered to be the main issues at stake. Since Mr. Okamoto's presentation is included elsewhere in this book (see Synthesis Paper <No. 12>, "Institutional Policies and Measures for Foreign Students in Selected OECD Countries: Country Reports Summary"), the summary of this session will start with the panelists' presentations

This summary, both presentations and discussions, was based primarily on transcriptions from the tapes of the session and also the editor's personal notes. Considerable overall editing was done at the discretion of the editor.

1. Presentations by Panelists

Ms. Elinor Barber, ***U.S.A.***

I will start by trying to discuss the question of why U.S. institutions of higher education accept or admit foreign students. I would contend that the policies of these institutions are based implicitly or explicitly on political considerations. Political in the general sense, not political in the partisan sense. But these are political judgments that we make. Whether or not the educational consequences of having foreign students are worthwhile . . . the answer has to be political. Whether the economic consequences are acceptable . . . again the answer is basically a political one.

The responses that the institutions make must be examined in the broader context of to the values and interests affecting institutions of higher education. First of all, there is a high educational value attached, in the United States at least, to diversity. Ours is a heterogeneous, pluralistic society, and it clings to what has been called the humanist presumption that diversity has positive benefits. Diversity is, first of all, a general phenomenon. It consists not simply of having foreign students well-represented in institutions of higher education but also minority students, mature students, in some cases women students. And it is assumed to be good for everyone, for all students, that there is such diversity.

Then moving more specifically to the diversity produced by foreign students. Foreign students presumably bring substantive benefits, i.e. the much discussed comparative perspective that derives from having people from different countries and cultures presenting their views on certain types of subjects, presumably especially subjects in the humanities and in the social sciences. Also the diversity that foreign students bring with them presumably helps create a tolerance of people from other countries and cultures. This is what we mean when we talk constantly about the extent to which foreign students produce international understanding. This is somewhat different from the notion of internationalizing the university; I think that is another issue. It is often argued, but without very much evidence, that foreign students produce international understanding.

The second kind of importance attached to foreign students has to do with their contribution to the instructional and research effectiveness of institutions. This occurs where there is a dearth of American students, especially at the graduate level in engineering and in the sciences. Foreign students permit effective teaching of undergraduates, because they become teaching assistants; and they permit research to be carried on effectively, because they take positions as research assistants. So their presence is consonant with institutional interests.

Then there are two further values and they are partly in conflict. One has to do with universalism or universality. This means basically treating everyone the same, according to common criteria of academic merit and according to a single conception of the right substance to be taught in a particular field. This means, as far as foreign students are concerned, that no allowances are made for their language difficulties or cultural divergence from main stream students. It means also that it is not acceptable to provide a special curriculum for foreign students. It means also that foreign students should have the same access to financial aid resources as domestic students.

Now what is somewhat in conflict with this is the high value put on national interests. In a world of nation-states it is difficult not to place predominant importance on our interests. And as that applies to foreign students, I would say, it means that to some extent there is preference given to American students as against foreign students when financial aid resources are being allocated. It means also that, for all the talk about international understanding, we have a certain expectation that foreign students will accept our values and become our friends when they come to the United States to study.

Now what is the relationship of research studies carried out on these issues of values and interests. Research on the impacts of the cost/benefits of foreign students, such as the studies we carry on at IIE, may contribute to the shaping of responses to foreign students. But I don't believe it can alter fundamentally the judgments of what is worthwhile in economic and educational terms. These are, I would say, political judgments and assessments of worthwhileness will change only to a limited extent, because of the provision of new facts. Thank you.

Mr. David Buckingham, *Australia*

I have been asked to address today the subject of the impact of government policies on institutional policy and practice, I do so as a government official. There is, I would suggest preliminarily, a rather basic question that needs to be asked. Namely, is there the role for the government? Is there a valid role? Is there a relevant role? Is there a significant role? There is quite a strong body of opinion in Australia which would answer that question with the response that it is invalid, should be irrelevant but unfortunately is significant.

Now behind that type of response, there is, I would suggest, a more basic question on that. That is, whether or not there is a place for national policy as regards foreign students. In large countries which lack such a policy, there is frequently a call for the establishment of policies in this area. In large countries which have a policy, there is a call that I would like to be freed from the policy. Whichever way it goes, the basic quest is a clarity for the ground role to be established. It is very difficult to achieve consistency in this area, because there are many different aspects of government interests which apply to foreign students.

Firstly, education policy interests, in particular, the question of the funding of the foreign students place, and immigration policy questions of conditions of entry and stay. In my country we require all foreign students to return home and enforce that policy through deportation practices, something which would be beyond thinkable in another countries. There are foreign policy interests. In my country we have important bilateral relationships with countries such as Malaysia built around a long history of a foreign students program which is providing for Malaysian national needs. Our relationship with the South Pacific is very heavily influenced by the flow of students. There are other areas that might be more surprising, health policy, for example. In the Australian government budget a recent attempt to withdraw the entitlement of foreign students to national health insurance coverage. This was a very highly controversial decision with regard to the foreign students population. Another area that would be surprising is a question of employment and labor market policies. In Australia we allow the foreign students to work up to 20 hours per week. We allow them to work full-time during vacations. There is a lot of argument as to whether or not that concession is both too generous, and whether it is a desirable practice to allow such employment.

These are some of the ways in which government policy can impact on foreign students. But I suggest that there are probably two key ways in which government policy can impact very directly. One is in respect of access to the Australian education system and the other is as regards funding policy. On access in the Australian context, we had mixed arrangements. We allow some students free and unlimited access with applying the full-cost to their place. There is no restriction on entry in that category. But as regards sponsored students we have a very elaborate system of quotas: club quotas, country quotas, institutional quotas, and faculty quotas, all of which is ministered by the government. And those quotas are, in fact, rationale for the existence of quite a complex bureaucracy. But there are other issues, also the same government involvement. As we allow free entry of students purchasing full-fee places there have been questions of standard, questions of codes of conduct, and questions of dispute settlement. And in all these areas government has become involved, though, in principle, you would like to raise the principal responsibility with the institutions.

Finally, the second major area is that of funding. The decision in 1985 to allow full-fee, full-cost places to foreign students has transformed the character of the Australian foreign students environment. Both the rapid growth in foreign students' entry and the development of institutional interests in foreign student issues become much more acute than they were previously. Development, previously unthinkable, has occurred. But at the same time, the character of the students population is changing, if the socioeconomic mix of the population is changing, as the basis of the population shift from a sponsored group to a group that includes a very substantial number who are paying for our private resources. Question of the desirability or undesirability of that outcome is a matter of substantial debate within our community. Thank you.

Mr. Yoshio Hara, ***Japan***

Putting aside all the numbers and figures concerning foreign students in this country, these are listed in detail in the Japanese country report.[1] I would like to concentrate on some very concrete experience I have had at the Tokyo Institute of Technology.

At the Tokyo Institute of Technology we presently have more than 300 students from many countries in the world: 60% from China and Korea, and 30% from other Asian countries. Most of them are in a graduate school pursuing masters' and doctors' degrees in engineering and science. At the doctoral level in engineering, foreign students comprise 43% of the total number of students at this level. This figure is the highest for all engineering departments in Japan. At an official meeting, our president would solemnly state that the purpose of accepting foreign students at Tokyo Institute of Technology is a mission of the university during a time of internationalization which is a national policy. Many professors will agree with this manifested value, but their attitudes toward foreign students have changed a great deal in the past 30 years since they were accepted for the first time after World War II in 1954.

Twenty years ago when the number of foreign students was still less than 100, a professor might say, "I have a foreign student from, say, X country." Then it sounded great, implying implicitly that this professor was a big shot, world famous and could speak English. And foreign students at that time enjoyed a "scarcity value" as important guests on campus. But today when a professor says wearily, "I have foreign students," he will be answered sympathetically like this, "I'm sorry to hear that, how are you getting along with them. Do they have any possibility to do Ph.D. level work? What will you do if they fail?"

The result is that foreign students have better chances to obtain a doctor's degree than Japanese domestic students. We are getting to be more and more quality conscious about foreign students' ability. The more we become quality conscious, the less we are satisfied, however. There are considerable differences in the ability or readiness to pursue research work between foreign students and Japanese students. The language barrier is one thing. But these differences are mainly due to the insufficient high school education in the field of mathematics and science in some Asian countries and considerably high standard in Japanese high school education in these fields. Furthermore, the best achievers in high school in many Asian countries, it seems to me, have a tendency to go to the United States and other OECD countries.

Since any achievement or merit comes from a combination of I.Q. and effort as Michael Young (an eminent British sociologist and the author of "The Rise of Meritocracy") suggested, Japanese professors have almost given up expecting students with both high I.Q.'s and high motivation. They only have two choices, one is higher I.Q. with low motivation and the other low I.Q. with high motivation. Japanese professors, through many years of experience, know that the latter combination, low I.Q. with high motivation, is better than the former. Anyway, we know that each OECD country exists in a very competitive market to get, buy or seduce quality students from the less developed countries. Many foreign students are still considered guests in the classroom and on the campus. Japanese language is difficult, it takes time to be good enough to follow a lecture and make Japanese friends. They tend to get together and establish a foreign enclave for themselves.

Foreign student management is not an easy task for Japanese universities. It seems to me that the university as an organization has employed a dual system to accept them. Two years ago, R.P. Dore, a British sociologist and Japan specialist, wrote a book on Japanese firms which were very successful in overcoming the economy difficulties of the 1970's. The book's title is "Flexible Rigidity," a unique combination of the rigid government sector and flexible private sector. Japanese universities all are criticized as slow to change, not as efficient as private companies, and employ the policy of flexible-rigidity to foreign students; but this time, with role allocation, flexible professors and rigid administrations. Japanese professors are usually flexible enough to apply a different criteria for the evaluation of the foreign students' achievements. Considering the burden of language, they don't hesitate to show personal affection to foreign students, inviting them to their homes, making arrangements with real estate companies to get them apartments, etc. Sometimes they even give private lessons for foreign students.

Foreign students live in a rather strict network of regulations. Administration is responsible for these regulations and they are often rigid. I don't necessarily condemn this rigidity, a university as an organization needs some rigidity. But care must be taken because the more professors become flexible, or irresponsible, the more the administrators are forced to be rigid. Application of flexible-rigid policy to the foreign students is sometimes successful as in the case of Japanese companies, but it often becomes a heavy burden on the part of administration. We need some changes. Internationalization of universities through the presence of the foreign students is an accepted value among many who are concerned with higher education in this country. Based on my experiences and observations, though very limited indeed, I would like to say that we have still long way to go to materialize our cherished values. Thank you.

Mr. Albert Prevos, *France*

Since the time is short, I will begin by addressing some difficulties we have now in France with our institutional policies. To introduce these, I will give you three numbers and facts. We have now in France about 160,000 foreign students. That means more than 13% of the total student population in France. Among them, 57% come from Africa. And in 1987-88 we had 4% less foreign students than in 1986-87. In France foreign students receive exactly the same treatment as French students. This means that we now face two problems, a problem of quantity and a problem of quality. I mention the problem of quantity because for political reasons we are expecting about 2 millions French students in France by the end of the century. This means a big effort in building housing for students and academic buildings, and recruiting more teachers. In this context, we will have to face the problem of a shortage of places even for the French students. In France there is what we call "residences universitaires," which means university housing. Now, less than 9% of all French students and more than 15% of foreign students live in these housing accommodations.

Also, we have a problem of quality. Most of those foreign students attend undergraduate programs, exactly where there is a big increase of French students. Most of them are what we call 'free movers' or 'private students.' Maybe 80% of them are private students. You must not forget that in France the university is partly free of charge and without selection. So, everybody can apply. Our undergraduate programs will be a challenge for the future in France. Facing those difficulties, our main policies remain the same. As all other universities, we need internationalization, whatever the meaning of this word may be. Intercultural exchanges are essential for our universities to stay competitive, especially in the field of research. And if we don't want to be isolated in the new transformational Europe, I think we must stay open-minded. So we must go on receiving foreign students. Everybody knows that in order to attract the best foreign students we have to show them our technological and economic achievements and advancement. We must not forget the economic aspect of receiving foreign students.

Thirdly, we have an obligation in France towards the developing countries, by which I especially mean our friends from Africa. This is a political attitude in France that will not change whatever the political orientation of the government is. We must reinforce what we call "francophonie." This is the area where French is spoken, especially in Africa. So we must train those people for development, but in French. We French are bad at foreign languages, so we think that the presence of foreign students can remind French students that they must learn foreign languages. This is important for us, because not only we are a receiving country but also we are becoming a sending country.

And lastly, we need foreign students in some post-graduate programs as a source of manpower as it is in other countries. You know that the doctorate in France is a very special case, maybe as it is in Japan. A doctorate opens up careers mainly for university teachers, but if you want to have a job in companies or industries, it is not, for the moment, very useful. So we need foreign students to attend those post-graduate courses. And this also is important in our policies.

We will have many foreign students in the future and we are pleased with this. Our policies will continue to promote the acceptance of foreign students. We need them. France is an open country with a tradition of hospitality.

Before I finish I have to speak of money as the others did. We need money for foreign students, more money for scholarships, more housing accommodations, which are becoming in France, as in all other European countries, a major issue. We have to explore new ways, not only to rely on State, but on local authorities and private citizens. We will try to find other partners for this purpose. Thank you.

Mr. Hans G. Schütze, ***OECD/CERI***

I would like to just make three points which are short and provocative rather than comprehensive and elaborate and which don't necessarily reflect the official German viewpoint but rather my own experience, both as a visiting student, as a visiting scholar, and as somebody who has been very much involved in the preparation of this OECD program and also engaged in a lot of conversations with people, both from sending countries and from receiving countries.

The first remark concerns the concept of internationalization. I would like to start with Mr. Ebuchi's notion and concepts of internationalization given in his keynote speech this morning. In this understanding, the concept should mean the process of not merely working with and teaching students from abroad but the process for the receiving institutions themselves to become more international. According to such a comprehensive concept, internationalization is an interactive dynamic process.

Now in this sense, one would have to ask a number of pertinent questions: how many of the higher education institutions in OECD countries have become international in terms of the meaning of this concept?, i.e. have accepted the concept of international understanding as a two-way street, not as a one-way street, and have made this concept one where an institution makes real commitments rather than just talking about international understanding. How many of the institutions in our countries recognize the equivalence of different cultural backgrounds and heritages of different regions in the world?, and how many of these institutions take these differences in background and heritage concretely into account when evaluating foreign students' backgrounds and performance? My guess is that far too few institutions are really doing that. There are lots of reasons why that is so. Most higher education institutions are overly burdened with what they consider their main mission, that is to accommodate and train domestic students. I should like to suggest also that academic staff on the whole are not sufficiently informed about, or interested in, Third World problems and conditions generally, and training needs in particular. I mean, really interested not just interested in filling empty classrooms or soliciting fees from private students from Third World countries.

The second remark: individual staff members interested in foreign students and Third World issues, as well as institutions, who do want to make a commitment to internationalization, will have to find additional resources in order to accommodate these students and to create special programs and services which can help the foreign students to make maximum use of their study time abroad. Now, in the absence of additional, specifically targeted and year-around accessible funds for this purpose, the means to really take care of foreign students will remain insufficient.

Also, I think one reason that has nothing to do, or only little to do, with resources but rather with academic tradition is that in most countries there is relatively little academic recognition and therefore incentive to do research or teaching, with respect to Third World issues and problems.

The third and last remark: we have been talking this afternoon on institutional policies or institutional responses in the OECD countries. Now, a re-examination of that subject leads to the question of concrete educational needs, i.e. the expectations and aspirations of foreign students arriving in OECD countries and the relevance of institutional programs to meet these needs. If we would concentrate on discussing this question, I think some of the answers and proposals suggested here would have looked a little different. Here again, we are facing a lack of information about social conditions and in particular labor market conditions in the sending countries. Professor Altbach, in the discussion this morning, has drawn our attention to effect that, with exception of a representative from the People's Republic of China, there is no representative of the sending countries around this table. And he also reminded us that we should use this opportunity of being together and discussing educational needs of Third World students and the response of higher education in OECD-countries to set forth an agenda for research in order to have more concrete and reliable information about not only what the policies of the institutional responses are or should be but also what the educational needs of the Third World students are.

My proposal is as follows: let's discuss the possibility of jointly undertaking a number of evaluation studies tracing former students and scholars who have been trained in OECD countries and who have gone back to their own countries or regions and let's see how they have been able to use and how they fared with what they have learned in OECD countries. Thank you.

Mr. Fu-Zeng Yu, *People's Republic of China*[2]

My country is a sending country comparatively speaking, with regard to the flow of foreign students, so my topic will be different from what other panelists have discussed. I want to make three points. First, about what has happened with the Chinese students going abroad in the past ten years. Second, about whether receiving countries will accommodate the needs of developing countries and will have the students return back to serve their homeland. And the third point is the future change in China's policy for sending students abroad.

Since 1978, the policy of sending scholars and students abroad has become a part of an "open door policy," the policy of opening the whole country to the world. Since then, a good number of Chinese students and scholars have been sent abroad. By the end of last year altogether, about 64,000 students and scholars have been sent abroad. Out of these 64,000, 24,000 were sponsored by the central government and local government, and 22,000 were sponsored by institutions and enterprises, and the rest, about 18,000, were private students, meaning they went abroad to study on their own. These 64,000 students and scholars have been spread over more than 70 countries in the world. Most of them are in about 10 countries. The area of study for 85% of these students/scholars is science and technology with the remainder in the social sciences and humanities.

The stress on science and technology study is obvious. Because we are a developing country, more manpower is needed in this field. Of those 46,000 students/scholars sponsored by the governments, institutions and enterprises, about 1,300 are undergraduate students. That means they are senior high school graduates in China and have been sent abroad for undergraduate study. And 12,000 are degree seeking graduate students in foreign countries and the rest are scholars and non-degree students. Up to now, about 22,000 of them have already returned home upon the completion of their studies, out of which only about 800 were those who pursued graduate studies and had been conferred doctoral degrees. The return rate for scholars and non-degree seeking students is very high. About 90% of them have returned back upon completion of their studies in foreign countries.

The low return rate for graduate students at present time is due to the fact that we have just started to send large numbers of them since 1982. It usually takes about 5 or 6, or even more than 6 years to get a doctor's degree in foreign countries. It varies from country to country. So it is not yet time for many of them to come back. But from this year we started to estimate that every year about 1,000 graduate students will be conferred degrees and should return home. So the government at present stresses that, on the one hand we should create or prepare the conditions at home for these graduate students to come back and work, and on the other, the returning students should be prepared to take on a job with conditions no better than those in foreign countries.

The second point. In the past ten years, the composition of the students/scholars sent by the government has been changing. A fair number of Chinese students were sent abroad for undergraduate study from the year of 1979 to 1981 during which time the undergraduate education in my country was in the process of restoration. As some people know that this was a result of the Cultural Revolution, when universities were closed. Because higher education was restored in China and a good number of students were enrolled in Chinese universities and colleges, we stopped sending senior high school graduates abroad in 1982. And in the same year as the first group of post-Cultural Revolution undergraduates were finishing their studies, it was possible for us to select some of them to be sent abroad for higher degrees. Since 1982 up to the end of last year, altogether, about 12,000 graduate students have been sent by the Chinese government and institutions. In the meantime, the degree system was adopted in China in 1982 and graduate education has been developed in China since then. By the end of last year, the total number of enrollment of students studying for masters' degrees in China was 120,000 with about 10,000 candidates for doctors' degrees. So we have reduced the number of students to be sent abroad for degrees. We selected only a small number from those already having acquired a master's degree at home to be sent abroad for a doctor degree. This kind of change is natural in China, because the developing country needs to strengthen its own ability to train people for the country. For sending people abroad also, there is a definite purpose: to strengthen the ability of training the personnel at home. So, we hope that receiving countries will consider the needs of the developing country and also accommodate the needs of the kind of people we wish to send.

The last point is the future change in China for sending students abroad. The Chinese government has set aside a considerable amount of money for sending students/scholars abroad. This will be continued in the future. But most of the people to be sent abroad in the future will be in the higher levels, that is, those who already have gotten either master's or doctor's degrees. In other words, they are at the post doctoral level or at the associate professor level and above. The scholars and students sponsored by institutions and enterprises to be sent abroad has been increasing rapidly in the past several years and I think that this group will become a main body of students and scholars going abroad from China in the future. These institutions and enterprises are very concerned about the return rate. If it can be shown that most people would return after finishing study and getting degrees, then institutions and enterprises in China will send more people abroad.

Another category of students going abroad is private students. Now in China, except for university students who are in their final year of study and registered as graduate students, there is no restriction on people going abroad to study on their own. In the past 10 years, there were some changes in the policy on people going abroad to study on their own. Sometimes there were more restrictions, while sometime there were fewer restrictions. But now we are considering that there should be no restrictions on people going abroad to study on their own if they have fulfilled their obligations in China. Because the majority of Chinese college students receive support from the government in tuition, boarding, etc., the government requires all university graduates, if they were supported by the government during their studies, to fulfill an obligation of service for a certain period of time that would be fixed by the government. This law will be applied to Chinese students serving at home on graduation as well. In the past, Chinese university graduates, after having finished their studies, were assigned to a job at a certain place for an indeterminate length of time. The students now, however, upon fulfilling the obligation of serving the home country for a fixed length of time, have the freedom to move from one place to another.

China is a developing country with a large population. Our higher education system is able to accommodate only a very small percentage of the youth who wish to study. Only 2 to 3 percent of the same age group are able to go to universities and colleges in China. The annual birth rate in China is about 20 million, so a large number of people want to have a chance. I think that more and more people will be finding a chance to go abroad for study. Thank you.

2. Discussion

The discussion that followed the panelist's presentations started with an information exchange of the so-called ERASMUS, a new program for international student mobility in the European Community that is projected to start in 1992. Discussion about ERASMUS was informative, particularly for those participants from non-European countries. It lasted for nearly an hour, mainly in the form of exchanging experiences among European colleagues. After ERASMUS, further information exchange and suggestions regarding more general topics were made during the rest of the session. The following is the editor's summary of discussion based on the transcription and notes. Speakers as well as readers are requested to accept that editor's own understanding and personal impressions are also included in this summary at the editor's discretion.

Implications of ERASMUS in 1992

The question about "ERASMUS" was first raised by Mr. Philip Altbach from the United States who expressed in particular his concern about its possible implications for other countries. The chairman at first invited Mr.

Gerhardus Veenkamp, a delegate from the Netherlands, to give some information on ERASMUS to the other non-European participants. His explanation may be summarized as follows.

The program called "ERASMUS" was named after the Dutch Minister of Education who was enthusiastic about the internationalization of higher education and happened to serve as the chairman for the European Community to produce a white paper on internationalization of higher education several years ago. The ERASMUS program is basically a funding program with European funds in order to stimulate co-operative programs between European universities to exchange students. A student gets the basic fellowship from his/her own government and may be selected on the quality to get additional funds which will allow him/her to make a year or half a year study at any other European institution. The idea is that students should be spread widely all over the European countries and disciplines. The program will start in 1992 because the year of 1992 is a sort of "magical date" when a lot of internal trade barriers within Europe will be removed, including many things which have to do with higher education. This means, for instance, after 1992 Dutch graduates can apply more easily for French jobs and vice versa. There will be complete international freedom, as far as people with university education is concerned, for access to jobs and access to higher education.

With regard to the second point that was raised by Professor Altbach, that is, the implications of the program to the rest of the world, Mr. Veenkamp said that he was not certain for the time being. Nevertheless, he remarked that "it all depends on what Europe does with it. If it means that Europe will be closed by high walls, it will be the worse off. If it means that we will open up the world more coherently with a more coordinated way of offering the best we have, we will all improve for it."

Ms. Ulrike Dolezal , a delegate from West Germany made a comment on this point by saying that even though not all the European experience may be transferred to the worldwide academic cooperation, some of the these experiences can be transferred, since systematic encouragement of academic cooperation in the European Community framework will influence the development to wards the internationalization of higher education by means of close cooperation between individual higher education institutions and the creation of joint-study programs. She said, "the European Community calls this joint-study program and arrangement of university partnerships are particularly suitable for improving the optimum structure of studies for foreign students. So it also helps the institutions to learn how they manage the structure of the studies for foreign students."

Another comment was made by Mr. Stuart Smith, a representative of the United Kingdom, concerning the second point, that is, "what does the rest of the world do about it?" by reporting a British experience with this program. According to him, 60% of the applications for ERASMUS mobility this year have a British component and the fact that Britain is probably the only European member to teach largely in English seems to be a very great attraction to students. But he also pointed out that ERASMUS is not simply about students mobility but also about staff mobility. Another thing Britain is now being faced with is the prospect that joint studies could mean joint degrees which are relatively common in France and Germany but exotic in Britain. But Mr. Smith said he expects that this mobility program will produce a kind of collaboration which becomes integral in the European Community, although there is concern about the new scheme that might cause many administrative problems, reflecting academic mismatches.

Mr. Thomas Lunden, a Swedish representative, discussed the Swedish reaction to the ERASMUS program by stressing the possible effect of the program on the promotion of academic mobility in Europe. While he noted that the Nordic countries, including the Scandinavian country, Norway, Sweden, Denmark plus Finland and Iceland, have agreed on something similar to the ERASMUS program, he revealed that there might be a negative side as well as positive side. He argued that the ERASMUS is centered only around inter-West European mobility, not the whole of Europe and furthermore is not concerned enough with Third World countries.

The significance of ERASMUS in 1992 was stated from the French perspective by Mr. Albert Prevos as well. He said that he is responsible for ERASMUS in France and understands that ERASMUS is important in changing the way of cooperation between universities. For the ERASMUS program, he remarked, "we have to change our diplomas and all classes of our studies so as to develop integrated programs in other European universities."

However, a warning was given to us by Mr. Klaus Schnitzer from West Germany. He sees all the reactions made towards ERASMUS "very fascinating and very significant" but at the same time he reminds us that the very large proportion of the current foreign students population comes from the Third World and that we should not ignore them as a result of the increasing concern within the European Community about the implications of ERASMUS in 1992. Currently a large proportion of the Third World students flows into North America, both the United States and Canada, who are not directly concerned with ERASMUS. "I think we need to be concerned in a broader global context of the implications of this revolutionary event within Europe, which will inevitably have a result outside Europe," said Mr. Schnitzer. He also pointed out that ERASMUS is not the only one program of mobility in Europe but there are several other programs pertaining to "mobility business."

A final question related to ERASMUS was raised by Mr. Toru Umakoshi, a Japanese expert. His question was particularly concerned about the relationship between higher education institutions and governments in terms of ERASMUS, more specifically whether there is any coordinating organization or bureau with regard to students placement, funding, curriculum, and so on. According to Mr. Veenkamp, the basic idea is to let universities themselves initiate processes to have more and more joint-study programs, through which faculty members get to know and accept the quality of each others' study and students can more easily spend one or two semesters in another university. This is expected to lead in a rather natural way towards increasing equivalence and reducing diploma problems. Universities will participate in this program on a voluntary basis, according to Mr. Veenkamp. Also, Mr. John Berry, a representative of Canada, commented on this point by pointing out the urgent need for information about international students and universities for evaluation. He said, "one of the significant impediments to international students is the difficulty which universities have in evaluating transcripts and academic credentials of students from other countries. This is a technical problem of considerable complexity and its solution really relies on accurate and up-to-date information on universities and their programs in another country."

Almost an hour was devoted to discussion on several aspects of the new international students/faculty mobility program called ERASMUS and its related problems. Although initial emphasis was made on the significance of the program for European Community, discussion was expanded to include some more general implications of the program beyond the European boundary. In the editor's impression, the ERASMUS program seems to be an interesting experiment for the development of credit transfer system between universities in different countries which can be realized solely through close contact and cooperation. As Mr. Berry points out, for ERASMUS to be successful, accurate and reliable information on universities in cross-national boundaries will have to be accessible. In this connection, several members suggested already available information packages such as TRACE, BRIGHT, and COMMET. TRACE, for instance, is basically an idea to set up an international data bank with information about all the curricula and possibilities for students and universities, according to Mr. Veenkamp and Mr. Paul Shapiro, a U.S. representative. It is no doubt that establishment of appropriate evaluation system based on the accurate information on international students and their home institutions is a prerequisite for the development of international mobility of students. In this sense, discussion about ERASMUS may be said to be significant enough in more general terms.

The Meaning of Internationalization

The rest of the panel discussion session picked up several other important topics with regard to why and how we accept and educate international students and in particular the meaning of internationalization.

Mr. Hiroshi Magofuku, a Japanese expert, argued that he was kind of suspicious about the usefulness of the word "internationalization." Instead, he preferred the concept of "diversification," which was suggested by Ms. Elinor Barber in her speech, in the sense that the Japanese universities tend to select foreign students from one limited standpoint, that is, the level of acquisition of knowledge, frequently called "hensachi" in Japanese, meaning "academic standard deviation value." "We need more diversified methods of screening in order to get more diversified types of students," said Mr. Magofuku. He believes that internationalization of higher education should mean the acceptance of more diversified students. He also expressed his deep concern with the quality of education of foreign students. Admitting there are many foreign students enrolled in the Japanese universities whose basic academic skills are not sufficient enough to follow university education, he emphasizes the need of providing special assistance in order for those students to obtain appropriate basic knowledge up to certain level. It is his conviction that the low level of academic ability may not be their own failure but may be due to the lack of appropriate educational arrangements and programs in their home countries. For such academic assistance, he suggests a diversified style of instruction and supplementary lesson programs, in accordance with their national and cultural backgrounds.

Ms. Barber responded to Mr. Magofuku's points positively. She also believes that diversity is relative. She said, "we think as we have been enormously heterogeneous country and we have to have the educational system reflect this greater diversity in terms of race, age, internationals." She pointed out that even in a country that often defines itself as much more homogeneous, like Japan, there is also considerable diversity which needs to be recognized.

In this connection, Mr. Shapiro gave us information on the U.S. situation in terms of government policy toward foreign students flow. According to him, U.S. government policy regarding the flow of foreign students to the United States can be summarized in four words: "open access and diversity." By diversity, he meant diversity not only at the country from which the students come: developed, developing, European, Asian, African, Middle Eastern, etc. but also diversity in the types of institutions to which they go in the United States: public and private, large and small, specialized and general. He explains that what the government does to carry out its policy characterized by those very broad guidelines is to support the infrastructure on which exchange is based by providing information and educational advice around the world regarding American educational institutions and courses of study. Related to this work, in order to support the infrastructure of exchange, the federal government works with universities in the United States to try to clarify some issues of degree equivalence which is a very complicated issue not only between the United States and other countries but also inside the United States as well.

Mr. Shapiro also referred to another point related to the U.S. Government's policy. He said that the U.S. Government tries to limit the effects of any developments that are seen as reducing the free flow of foreign students and open access whether those developments are intended or not. Sometimes active involvement of federal government in state affairs occurs, according to him. For instance, last year one state proposed a bill which would have imposed fees on foreign students far higher than those fees applied to out-of-state students but the federal government, along with many other organizations, strongly opposed that legislation.

The discussion then turned directly to the meaning of internationalization. Mr. David Buckingham from Australian Government made a brief comment on the concept from the Australian perspective. He said, "in my country we very rarely hear the term internationalization. In fact, I attended a number of conferences in the last couple of years but one thing that has struck me in the term is that it has already a meaning to many other countries around the table, not only Japan but also many of the European countries and the United States. It is quite significant that in my country the term is the one that is very rarely heard." Mr. Buckingham asks what is really behind the commitment to internationalization, being himself rather critical of using the word. Mr. Buckingham seems to prefer the word "true integration of foreign students" which should mean the commitment to internationalization, emphasizing the importance of providing sufficient services to meet the needs of foreign students in matching level to those for domestic students. He sees the word internationalization as a rhetoric rather than a reality. He seems to be trying to say that, from his standpoint, the argument should be realistic enough to lead to policy building for international students.

Strategies to Internationalization

In relation to the arguments over the meaning of internationalization, Mr. Veenkamp gave a few comments on the main theme of the panel discussion concerning why institutions accept foreign students by suggesting positive strategies for hosting international students. He explained that there are three parallel tracks or strategies to approach this theme. The first strategy is that "simply we think we have something to offer." He agrees with Ms. Barber to say that we host country people tend to hope that foreign students accept our values. "As far as foreign students hope that way too, there will be nothing wrong with it," said Mr. Veenkamp. The second track is "to give assistance by training people from the Third World countries to improve know-how in order that they will be able to do their own research or teaching." And the third strategy is "to have international mobility, that is, international contact between students and faculty/staff with the ultimate purpose to come up together with something new, truly based on the equivalence of culture, background, and so forth."

Mr. Veenkamp's remarks seem to be very useful when we consider the rationale of accepting international students. Mr. Veenkamp separates one strategy to another because he believes these three strategies or tracks require quite separate approaches in organizational and financial terms. As he suggests, we may put major emphasis on a particular one as compared to the others, depending upon the students' needs and/or available resources on the host side, but these three elements are always there. Mr. Veenkamp's suggestions about strategies to international students mobility stimulated other colleagues around the table and called a lot of positive responses hereafter.

The chairman called our attention to what Mr. Veenkamp has suggested as to three different approaches or strategies to put into effect internationalization of higher education and encouraged the colleagues around the table as well as the floor to respond to his suggestions. Then, Mr. Peter Meier, from Denmark, immediately gave a short remark in which he wanted to add the fourth approach, calling "strategy No.4." According to him, in the case of Denmark, internationalization means that they send their students abroad and "import" values and concepts from another country to Denmark which can mean a lot in the future. "This point is missing in Mr. Veenkamp's suggestions," said Mr. Meier.

Following Mr. Meier, two other strategies were suggested by Mr. Berry. One of them is what he calls "commercial strategy" by which he means the capacity "which is available and which institutions-governments decide to sell overseas." The other is "the policy regarding international students as investment for the future of one's own country and in terms of opening up avenues for trade and future good international relations." In addition, Mr. Berry made two more remarks. Firstly, he thinks that we should avoid the temptation dividing the world into sending-receiving countries, since we are both. Secondly, he points out that we tend to see foreign students as a single homogeneous group but this is too simple and quite misleading. Instead, he suggests, we need to see them as composed of diverse backgrounds for a number of purposes toward policy considerations.

An additional comment on internationalization was given by Mr. Christian Brunner, a representative of Austria. He argues that our discussion is a little bit too idealistic as far as the flow of foreign students is concerned. We are likely to talk about academic values of internationalization but he emphasizes the economic aspect, instead, for he thinks that one of the main reasons for internationalization is to get more competitive in economic sense. From this point of view he adds the fourth strategy to those three strategies proposed by Mr. Veenkamp. According to him, we send students abroad to import facts and knowledge which can be turned into an economic advantage. He states, "Austria is not an underdeveloped country but we try hard to catch up with highly industrialized countries like Germany, Switzerland, Japan, or the United States. And we learn in these days that our government is more willing to fund joint-study programs, with those countries more than joint-study programs with developing countries. And I think this hard economic reason for internationalization will change our academic attitude and academic values a lot." In short, he tried to mean that we should be more realistic in talking about the reasons for internationalization.

While expressing her interest in discussion about open-access and diversity which was initiated by Ms. Barber as a panelist, Ms. Ballard, an Australian expert, wanted to talk about the needs of international students on the more realistic and concrete level. She said, "in my experience, the needs of overseas students or foreign students is to get a qualification which is going to be useful to them in whatever country they are from, whether it is a developing or developed country." She feels that the discussion of diversity of students so far has been centered around the government policy and government rhetoric. "In my experience," she argues, "policy for diversity is very seldom carried over into genuine diversity of qualifications." "We must recognize that," she continues, "as the Japanese case clearly illustrates, pressures from the highly unified education system are put on us when we attempt to introduce diverse students into it but still have to produce the same quality output."

Related to the above discussion about "strategies," but from a somewhat different perspective, Mr. Braun made a comment on the implications of what Mr. Kawano reported concerning the current problems of receiving foreign students into Japanese universities (Morning Session: a keynote address). Mr. Kawano found the three most important problems: 1) the problem of readiness of foreign students for study, for the first in language and for the second in quality, especially in the readiness for selected subjects, 2) the problem of providing adequate curriculum for foreign students, and 3) the problem of different living conditions, especially the poor financial security of private students having less money. Mr. Braun pointed out that these three main problems are interestingly all found in the summary of country reports provided by OECD/CERI Secretariat. He further suggested that every country can find a lot of useful suggestions in the country reports: more information, admission, language preparation, structural content of study program and teaching method, solution of cultural adjustment, orientation programs, counseling, staff training and so on and that the main task we have is to evaluate these different methods to help foreign students in the host countries. In addition, there is another important task "to find a balance between the needs of the sending countries and the interests of the host countries," remarked Mr. Braun.

Invited to respond to the above comments, Mr. Kawano summarized the reasons for receiving foreign students to Japan as the following. Japan receives students from abroad because there are foreign students who wish to study in Japan but at the same time we also think it beneficial for Japan to have the increased number of students from abroad as well, in view of the general understanding among the Japanese in that without neighboring countries' economic progress, Japan cannot maintain its presence in the international scene under the present circumstances. There are many problems, however. The most serious problem Japan is currently facing, he emphasized, is the budget problems pertaining to the improvement and expansion of facilities as well as programs to benefit foreign students.

In closing this summary of panel discussion, let me remark here on the usefulness of the country reports submitted to OECD/CERI for this seminar because, as Mr. Braun appropriately pointed out, some of them are excellent case studies of government policies and institutional arrangements and measures regarding foreign students, which are very informative and full of ideas and strategies to overcome problems, many of which were not discussed today.

Notes

1. Ebuchi, Kazuhiro and Hicks, Joseph E., "Japanese Report," a country report presented for the Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students, November 8-10, 1988, Hiroshima, Japan.
2. Mr. Fu-Zeng Yu , Director, Bureau of Foreign Affairs, State Education Commission, the People's Republic of China, was invited by the Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, as a special guest observer for this seminar. China currently sends more international students to Japanese universities than any other country. We requested him to make his comments from a sending country's perspective, because we strongly felt that we should obtain a balanced view regarding the flow of foreign students by having someone who represents a sending country.

14

NETWORKING AND RESEARCH AGENDA FOR THE FUTURE: A SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION IN THE CLOSING SESSION

Kazuhiro Ebuchi

Introduction

This is a summary of discussion from the final session. The main component of this session were three rapporteurs' reports by Mr. Seth Spaulding (Working Group A), Mr. Yoshiya Abe (Working Group B), and Mr. Douglas Windham (General) respectively but the discussion that was held between the two rapporteurs' reports for working groups and the last general rapporteur's report was also full of useful information and insightful ideas. The following is a summary of discussion based on transcription of the entire session. For the readers' convenience, it has been edited to a large extent, with speeches rearranged according to subject rather than in sequential order.

The closing session in the third day afternoon started with two working group rapporteurs' reports. Before getting into discussion the suggestion was made to invite Japanese institutional representatives to make comments or to raise questions. Several people responded to this invitation. One participant, who has been serving as foreign students advisor for many years, confessed that she has been so busy with her routine work that she seldom have time to think of such a fundamental question of why we accept foreign students and what we educate them for. Through this three-day seminar, however, she strongly felt that we should keep thinking of this fundamental question.

Another observer from a private university in Tokyo, while expressing his gratitude to attend this kind of seminar for the first time, raised two questions concerning: (1) how we can retain or improve quality of education for foreign students with the massive increase of private students on the private university campuses and (2) how we can accommodate those foreign students in view of the shortage of housing facilities at the present time and in the very near future. He especially wanted to know what kind of solutions may be possible, since he recognizes that foreign students are now becoming a determining factor for survival of some private universities.

Housing Problem for Foreign Students

The first question seemed to be too inclusive or abstract and therefore the answer to this question could be multidimensional. Answers to this question were partly given in the discussion about the "infrastructures" for foreign students as we will describe later. In contrast, the second question on the housing problem brought quick responses from many colleagues around the table.

Mr. Gerhardus Veenkamp, from the Netherlands, responded to the question of housing by stating that housing problem is very important in the Netherlands, too. According to him, the ERASMUS program (see "Institutional Policies towards the Flow of Foreign Students: A Summary of Panel Discussion" Part 1, Section 2) is causing a considerable strain on the housing problem. But in the case of two university towns in Holland, so far it has been solved by the endeavor of students themselves by setting up some sort of clearing house or data bank on whatever room is temporarily available, which is working very efficiently.

Mr. Stewart Smith, from U.K., reported British experience. He said they do not make separate housing arrangement for overseas students. They are integrated with the British students, e.g., they swim with the British students. "This produces tension but also rewards. We think the gain is worth the risk," said Mr. Smith.

Mr. Albert Prevos, from France, also informed us of the housing problem in France. What he said was very similar to that of the British case. They too have the same problem of housing for students but not only for foreign students but also for all students. Mr. Prevos stressed that they do not separate foreign students from other French students, meaning to treat them as equal. "We do not want to build ghettos for foreign students," said Mr. Prevos.

Insofar as the comments on housing, they seemed to be centered around the same point from different perspectives. The point was whether we should treat foreign students differently from domestic students in terms of accommodation. Ms. Maureen Woodhall, from U.K., referred to the British case where they do not provide separate housing for foreign students. So did Mr. Prevos in the case of France. Germany has a similar system. According to Ms. Ulrike Dolezal, from the Federal Republic of Germany, they solve the problem by having a "mixture system" which means housing foreign and German students together.

Mr. John Berry, from Canada, was another who emphasized the great advantages not making too strong distinctions between the foreign students and the students in general. According to him, this recognition is common in many institutions in Canada. Canadian institutions of higher education do not provide any specific measure for foreign students like in the United Kingdom, said Mr. Berry. Furthermore, he disclosed that, in view of the major housing shortage in recent years, universities in Canada tried to appeal to the public to offer extra rooms in their houses or some kind of space for rent for the benefits of students and the attempts have been fairly successful in having the effect of sensitizing the public to get more involved with university matters than they had in the past.

Mr. Brian Goodman from Ontario, Canada, added a comment in relation to housing. According to him, all the universities in the province of Ontario are publicly funded. The government of the province recently recognized that the shortage of favorable housing for students would be a big barrier to accessibility to higher education institutions and so the government provided money free of interest for building 5,000 residences to accommodate 5,000 or more students. Because they do not distinguish between foreign students and residence students in relation to accommodation, international students will also take advantage as well, he commented.

Finally, Mr. Ken Back, from Australia, explained the Australian case. According to "residential colleges" are built, being partly subsidized by the government. This is somewhat different from the concept of "international house," which was developed as a special type of "halls of residence" in 1950s, with the basic idea of encouraging overseas students to participate in the university activities the moment they entered the universities. However, there has been a growing concern for special interests and needs of overseas students, e.g., food preference, etc. This led to better understanding of the possible needs for different type of residence halls, where, for instance, students can do their own cooking. Mr. Back emphasized there is no discrimination against foreign students by having different residence halls for them because Australian students and foreign students can meet in the international house on each campus. Besides this, there are various kinds of efforts to help overseas students in their integration on and off campus, e.g., helping with settling in, home visits, arranging the place for holidays, and so on.

Internationalization: Foreign Students as Partners

Some colleagues responded to the first question raised by the observer on the floor, that is the problem of how to advance the quality of education for foreign students at the time of a massive increase. Responses were given from various perspectives but they commonly concentrated on how to provide foreign students with better information on academic life. Later discussion led to the idea of networking among students. It was impressive enough that many speakers appeared to have considered internationalization of education as a significant part of quality education.

Mr. Veenkamp responded to the first question, telling that he was impressed by his discussions with those foreign students from Hiroshima University. "They were really concerned about the quality of education." He then suggested that the universities all over the world will face more critical clients who will be able to choose the best quality of education because of better access to information through something like an international consumers' association of students. This implies that having foreign students will cost much more money and efforts and creative thinking than we think. "That time will come faster, much faster than we think," added Mr. Veenkamp.

From a more specific viewpoint, Mr. Paul Shapiro, from U.S.A., suggested the need to organize international as well as national networks through which successful approaches to quality education for foreign students can be shared in order to improve the quality. According to him, there is a need to develop an organization, as "the infrastructure for successful exchange" in Mr. Spaulding's term (see Mr. Spaulding's rapporteur's report), to accumulate and to provide with more information on students from the same countries and the experience of past students from the same country.

Following Mr. Shapiro, Ms. Woodhall stressed the strong need to think of the foreign students themselves as a valuable resource when we talk about providing "infrastructures." She illustrated this by the example of students' informal helping network in finding accommodation in Holland, as reported by Mr. Veenkamp earlier. Also she showed her interest in students' organizations reported in Japan (see Japanese Report III.1.3.) which she thinks can be very helpful for new students to overcome initial loneliness. When she asked in her survey in Britain about what the reason was for students to choose Britain, she found the single most important source of information was the "word of mouth," that is, experiences from former students. So she emphasized that "we need to think about building infrastructures but let us not forget these infrastructure should involve the students themselves, because they are a very valuable source of helping information."

Like Ms. Woodhall, but with a somewhat different perspective, Mr. Berry also suggested the idea of using students as a resource for helping new comers. According to him, many universities in Canada have programs in which senior students volunteer to act as a sort of "professional friends" (big brother/ sister?) for incoming first-year students, without distinction of whether the incoming student is foreign or domestic. Besides that, some universities have set up more extended and specific programs for foreign graduate students in recent years, i.e., to meet students arriving at the airport, to spend first two days with them showing around the town, where to eat, where to buy, how to use the transportation system, etc. This work is all voluntary but the domestic students who volunteer gain important benefits, making a friendship with foreign students. Mr. Berry stressed that this is what Canadian universities think as means of internationalizing education for a number of Canadian students on the campus. This type of service program resembles what is called "tutorial system" in the Japanese universities.

Ms. Elinor Barber, from U.S.A., expressed her great concern with the importance of an idea of "mutual adjustment" of home-country students and foreign students. What she meant by that was that we need to sensitize the home country students to a greater extent to the interesting possibilities of interacting with foreign students, rather than asking only foreign students to adjust to the host society. Then the session chairman from Japan at this session, agreed with her by referring to the situation in Japan where they tend to treat foreign students separately from the rest of students and suggested that there should be some measures to stimulate home country students' interests as was suggested by Mr. Berry. Mr. Ebuchi also followed that this "two way concept of adjustment" suggested by Ms. Barber is agreeable, because this concept coincides with the underlying philosophy of internationalization as "becoming" rather than "acting upon others" that he explained in his keynote report.

Ms. Ann Helm, from the U.S., also expressed that we should be better prepared to work as partners with foreign students and respect them as partners. She also suggested providing specialized training to the students in basic cross-cultural communication skills, conflict negotiation skills, etc.

Related to this point, Ms. Dolezal reported the German situation of internationalization in higher education institutions. She said in Germany intercultural learning is considered to be very important for internationalizing higher education institutions which are major elements of international academic relations and from this point of view the federal government and state

(Länder) government are encouraging international cooperation and exchange between German and foreign higher education institutions. Under these circumstances research and teaching in the universities are always to be coordinated with the demands of the home countries of foreign students and the need of individual students, said Ms. Dolezal. They believe that this will heighten the positive influence of the foreign students in higher education.

Providing pre-information on the host country, both on-campus and off-campus life, preparatory classes, orientation before coming in the host country, etc. was certainly an important topic that has concerned many colleagues. Mr. Hubert Braun, from Germany, suggested cross-cultural cooperation between individual institutions, like the creation of joint-study programs in the arrangement of university partnerships, as a possible means of solving the problems of preparation, of selection of students, admission arrangements as well as the design of study. He then expressed his hope that such partnerships and programs between higher education institutions could be realized in the future as one result of this seminar.

Networking

In relation to internationalization of higher education, the need to establish "networking" for information exchange regarding foreign students education was suggested by many colleagues at this discussion. Mr. Back first referred to the existing networks of international organizations. He said that during the past 4 years most developed countries established specialists organizations, mostly non-government, sometimes semi-government, to facilitate higher education in international activities within that country, all of which are to keep watching on the academic and social welfare of foreign students. To name but a few: NAFSA and IIE in U.S.A., UCC, WSC and WUSC in Canada, UKCOSA in U.K., JAFSA in Japan and DAAD in Germany, IDP in Holland, etc. Mr. Back thinks that with the increased interests of international higher education, each of these organizations have become deeply concerned with the flow of foreign students in internationalization of higher education. So, "it can be very useful if we can develop some informal network of these organizations so that we could communicate with each other, perhaps on occasions like this, to discuss common issues," concluded Mr. Back.

Mr. Hans Schütze, from OECD, totally agreed with Mr. Back and suggested two official conferences: one is a big OECD seminar like this one and the other is an expert seminar like the one held last year in the United States involving lots of institutions and organizations (held at the State University of New York, Albany, October 7-9, 1987). He believes that prominent network of sharing experiences on a regular basis outside the conferences should really be extended now. Also he says we should include not only receiving countries but also sending countries in this network.

Ms. Marianne Hildebrand, from Sweden, also reacted to Mr. Back regarding the need of networking. She said that in Sweden they had the same experiences, problems and benefits from having foreign students and they have high ambitions for receiving foreign students and using them as a resource for internationalization of higher education. So "naturally we want to take part and contribute to this kind of network and information exchange," said Ms. Hildebrand. There are such organizations for information exchange in Europe but what we want to have is a worldwide network, added Ms. Hildebrand.

Research on Foreign Students: Future Agenda

Throughout the three-day discussions, everybody felt the urgent need of promoting proper research on various problems regarding foreign students and of establishing a sort of persisting network for information exchange and showed their concern with a research agenda for possible future conferences. It was pointed out, however, by some colleagues that there are some barriers to the advancement of proper research on foreign student education. With the recognition of such barriers, some points for a future research agenda were proposed in the final stage of this discussion.

It was Mr. Joseph Mestenhauser, from the University of Minnesota, who first pointed out the complexity of this field of foreign students education. He says, we are continuously involved in explaining foreign students to other people but the more we explain, the more complexity we get. It is a kind of vicious circle and this is one of our burdens. He thinks that difficulties derive from the fact that we have not conceptualized what we are talking about at a sufficiently high level of perception. There are two factors involved here, according to him. "First of all, we have not discussed adequately the organization for international education in our universities, and secondly, we have not addressed adequately the question of the curriculum for international education." He continues, "I think the underlying cause of that problem is that we do not have conceptualization of what the outcome of international education should be. When we do have that in our minds, it is often ideologically oriented." In his perception, the difficulties of international education lie in the fact that universities are very hierarchical organizations, while international education laterally cuts across the vertical organization so that the latter is not congruent with the structure of the university. As a result, it follows that, he argues, "when we talk about the particular service for foreign students, we place that service along the continuum of the hierarchy." He also stressed the importance of learning; what people learn and how they learn as well. He says foreign students are like a mirror: if we do not educate them adequately, we have not educated our own students adequately. "So I search for a level of conceptualization which will be explanatory enough that it can be conveyed to policy makers and that it would not just be hiding behind the economic benefits that we obtain from them or the problems that we solve for these 'poor handicapped' students," remarked Mr. Mestenhauser.

Mr. Akira Hoshino, from Tokyo, Japan, made a couple of points regarding the future research agenda that might be executed by OECD/CERI or its related organizations. He suggests five possible areas. The first one is the concept of mutual adjustment in Ms. Barber's term. The second is the social and cultural programs including community responsibility on and off campus. The third is the cost-benefit analysis and the fourth is the data base for information on foreign students education. Finally, the fifth is the evaluation or assessment of effectiveness of studying abroad in terms of academic and social programs.

Mr. Schütze also emphasizes the need of a research agenda for the future research. He suggests the research agenda to include case studies and cross-national studies on specific subjects, in addition to the topics suggested by Mr. Hoshino. A similar suggestion was made by Mr. Kazuhiro Ebuchi. He regards country reports as a very useful source of information concerning foreign students, referring to the case of Wageningen Agricultural University as a model of internationalization which appeared in the country report of the Netherlands (see Part 2: S. Slager, "Foreign Students and the Internationalization of the Wageningen Agricultural University: A Case Study").

What was suggested by Mr. Hoshino and Mr. Mestenhauser about the future research on foreign student education was reacted by several other colleagues. Mr. Veenkamp agrees with Mr. Mestenhauser who says we need a proper concept and framework, if we want to do proper research, which we lack. So he urges us to put energy into that. While, as for the research topics, he considers the list suggested by Professor Hoshino as illuminating, he claims that probably we need another type of creative research that will be an extra intellectual challenge in order to examine and analyze such complex problems as foreign students education.

Mr. David Buckingham, from Australia, also followed the point concerning research agenda. He admits that the last OECD seminar held in Holland did not follow up with a research agenda and thinks that this is because a research agenda was not automatically picked up as part of the work program of CERI. However, now he argues that this should be done and, as an example, he suggests, member countries pick up cost/benefit issues and carry out research applied to the particular circumstances. In relation to the above discussion, Mr. Buckingham also suggested that the result from the work program at this seminar should be disseminated in a way somewhat different to the normal OECD documentation, by the other type of network, NAFSA, JAFSA, or other bodies so as to get a very wider audience and more significant attention.

A final comment on future research agenda was made by Mr. Berry. He argues that he does not think there is a research vacuum but, rather, there is a large amount of research going on. The difficulty is that those research findings are scattered among too wide of a variety of sources, journals on international development, journals on research in higher education, government reports on various programs and so on. What we need then, he says, is to pull them together somehow and make an assessment of the field in terms of determining what is really already out there, where the gaps are, and what needs to be done. And he recommended CERI to start this activity.

All colleagues were very active in discussion and many important ideas and suggestions including the future research agenda came out of the discussion. What we have learned from this session as well as other sessions were analyzed and assessed by Mr. Douglas Windham in his general rapporteur's report, which can be found in the last section of this volume.

15

SPECIFIC MEASURES AND PROGRAMS FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS: RAPPORTEUR'S REPORT ON WORKING GROUP A

Seth Spaulding *

Working Group A discussed "Specific Measures and Programs for Foreign Students" during the morning and afternoon sessions on Wednesday, November 9, 1988, and the Rapporteur reported to the plenary at the closing session during the afternoon of November 10. Several invited papers helped focus discussions. These papers were as follows: "International Students in Higher Education: Institutional Policy Issues," by Seth Spaulding; "Measures and Impacts of Foreign Student Participation in the United States Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Research Perspectives," by Douglas M. Windham and Alan P. Wagner; "Specific Measures and programmes for Foreign Students," by Maureen Woodhall; and "Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students: A View from the Sending Country," by Klaus Schnitzer. The chairs of the working group were as follows: G.T. Veenkamp, Motohisa Kaneko, and Kiyoshi Yamamoto.

The discussion dealt with issues surrounding the numbers of foreign students desired by individual higher education institutions and by host governments; the programs of study offered them; recruitment screening practices; counselling and other services needed; costs associated with foreign students and who should pay for what; how to provide incentives for institutions and faculty dealing with foreign students; and institutional problems, research and information needs related to all of the above.

How Many Foreign Students and Why?

Foreign students, the working group noted, are a varied population. There are sponsored students (the minority) and self-sponsored students (the majority); those who wish to study abroad because of general interests in language and culture; those who are attracted by specific short or long-term career-oriented courses; those who simply want to study abroad for prestige or family reasons. Many students are traveling from developing countries to industrialized countries, while others are traveling among the highly industrialized nations or among the lesser developed nations. Relatively few students from the richer countries are attracted by the universities in the poorer countries, although there are some who move in that direction. Institutions and governments deal with each kind of student somewhat differently.

---

* Professor, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A.

Many higher education institutions in countries where substantial tuition is charged wish to fill unused places with income-producing international students; institutions and governments which sponsor short-term training programs wish to attract students to fill the places; many universities feel that foreign students help internationalize and enrich the campus environment and many have programs to attract foreign students and to encourage student and faculty exchange with foreign institutions. Most host governments have explicit or implicit public policy goals in encouraging foreign students; they fell that many of these students will return home to key positions and that their knowledge of the former host country will be beneficial in political and trade relationships in the future. Few tracer studies have established convincing evidence of short or long-term benefits of hosting foreign students, either in terms of encouraging internationalization of host campuses or of establishing close political and trade ties with sending countries. Nonetheless, common sense and anecdotal and case evidence would seem to support the notion that such effects are significant.

There are few quotas imposed by either institutions or governments in terms of numbers of foreign students allowed, except in certain high demand areas (for example, engineering and medicine) in certain institutions. Some countries have a notional over-all quota (5% in Sweden, plus 10% for migrants living in Sweden), while others (for example, Japan and Canada) have indicated that they wish to encourage substantially more foreign students than they have had in the past.

For What Kinds of Programs?

The kinds of programs in which foreign students are interested varies from host country to host country. In most countries, however, interest of foreign students in undergraduate programs is declining and the numbers of students applying for graduate programs is increasing. Students sponsored by their home government, an international agency, the host government or other group increasingly are funded for attendance at a specific, goal-oriented training course rather than for a full degree program. Non-degree "Performance-based" training, often exclusively for foreign students, although sometimes for both domestic and foreign students, is on the increase. "Free movers," as opposed to sponsored students, on the other hand, tend go seek degree programs which will help them in employment on return home or which may lead to employment in the host country and they seek universities where there is some chance of financial support during their studies. In some countries, large numbers of foreign students are found in graduate programs of such specializations as engineering and business where many domestic students find graduate degrees leading to university research and teaching not attractive (since they can enter business and industry with lesser degrees and have greater potential for higher salaries than in university work).

Some universities and sponsoring agencies are moving from the concept of giving something to foreign students to the concept of a client relationship within which they are trying to offer programs which are useful and appropriate for the student who expects to return to another economic and cultural context. Some universities are "twinning" with institutions in the sending country, with some work being done at home for which credit is given at the host institution. This gradually develops linkages and partnerships which can extend to cooperative research and other joint activities between and among faculty members in the linked institutions. Although there were few concrete examples given in the working group, some suggested that the uses of new delivery methods should be explored, including the use of satellites and of distance-learning strategies, in serving foreign students clientele.

Problems of equivalencies in terms of recognition of academic work were mentioned on several occasions. Twinning and other kinds of institutional cooperation may make possible more flexible short courses with transfer of credit possible; Common Market programs, such as ERASMUS and TRACE, may make recognition of credits and degrees among EEC countries less of a problem.

How to Recruit and Screen?

As more countries and institutions step up efforts to recruit foreign students, there is need for an internationally-formulated and accepted code to guide in such efforts, according to a number of participants in the working group. There are examples of misleading advertisements and of course descriptions which are not accurate. Such problems are not limited to private educational institutions, but often are noted among public universities as well.

Participants agreed that commonly agreed standards for judging academic credentials are needed and that, however useful current efforts may be, they leave something to be desired. AACRAO manuals (used by many US universities in evaluating degrees), for instance, are often controversial in the countries which are treated in the manuals (some of the equivalencies suggested for Germany, for instance, were considered by a German participant as being way off the mark). At the same time, caution was expressed that such standards not be accepted blindly, and that each student and each institution must be judged on its own merits.

Participants reported mixed experience with examination and screening devices other than transcripts. Language screening was considered especially important by all participants, with the suggestion that remedial language be offered either in the sending country prior to travel of the student or in the host country following travel. Japanese participants noted that Japan increasingly is offering language training in sending countries to prepare students they travel to Japan for studies.

Some participants reported significant problems with foreign students who arrive in the host country before being admitted to any institution. Many of these students have problems when they are not immediately accepted and the situation is embarrassing for all involved. Regulations to encourage advance admission and appropriate review of credentials before traveling are advisable.

Some participants suggested more attention be given by recruiting institutions to personal contact with institutions and governments in sending countries in order to establish ongoing relationships useful in identifying the needs of the country, its institutions and its traveling students. Such efforts often improve the quality of the students attracted and helps the host institution understand the academic and training needs of the students.

The need for professionals to assist in the recruitment of foreign students and in the evaluation of their credentials and other screening procedures, was stressed. At the same time, it was noted that such professionals are often located in the administrative structure of universities (often part of the registrar's office), rather than on the academic side, and that faculty members interested in internationalizing the institution and its programs must be involved, as well, if such programs are to be taken seriously by the various academic programs on campus.

How to Counsel Foreign Students and Provide Other Needed Services?

Participants noted that foreign students need a variety of counseling and other services which go beyond those normally offered domestic students. Assuming that such students are often admitted long before they actually arrive, a variety of "bridging" services and experiences are needed. France, for instance, is offering courses in sending countries in scientific French for those students who will enter scientific specializations upon arrival in France. Other countries offer a variety of counselling and guidance services in the sending country for students about to leave for their countries. Participants reported on only a few higher education institutions that provide such "bridging" services before students actually leave their home countries; such services are usually provided by information, language and cultural programs offered by governments and are not oriented toward specific institutions or academic programs in the host country.

A number of universities in host countries, of course, offer language training for foreign students, and some offer remedial work for foreign students concurrently with their academic work. At the University of Pittsburgh, for instance, the English Language Institute offers ten levels of language for foreign students and the English department offers editorial help to foreign students who have difficulty in writing term papers and research studies. Other services are offered by the University Center for International Studies and its various area study programs. The foreign student office, in the Registrar's office, assists the foreign students primarily with housing, immigration matters and other logistical concerns.

Such examples illustrate the concern of the participants that the entire campus be involved in appropriately serving the needs of foreign students. One office to handle administrative details is not enough. Especially important is to recognize the link between social adjustment and academic work and to provide help for students who need counselling concerning personal and psychological problems. On the academic side, participants talked of the "cognitive discontinuity" experienced by many foreign students when they discover that the host institution has different traditions of teaching and learning than those with which they are familiar. There is need for help in remediating any such difficulties found by foreign students. As examples, many students from developing countries are not familiar with seminar classes which require library preparation and discussion; nor are they always experienced in doing library research and referenced research papers. Such skills may need to be taught to the entering foreign student.

Who will Pay for What?

The cost of hosting foreign students is of concern to most institutions and governments. At the same time, the per-student cost is difficult to establish. Average cost per student in an institution or program can be misleading when applied to foreign students. In most schools in a university, the marginal cost of adding a few foreign students is minimal. No new facilities are needed, no new faculty members, and only marginal additional supplies are required. If larger numbers are admitted to an already crowded specialization, however, substantial additional investment might be needed.

Whatever the additional costs, and however they are figured, the interest of institutions and governments in attracting foreign students is tempered in most countries by current concerns over the increasing cost of higher education. Although some countries continue to provide foreign students (as their own students) with no-fee education, many countries and institutions have instituted fee structures which they feel cover a major part of the cost of the education provided. Most such countries, at the same time, provide generous, but targeted, student aid. Such aid is provided students who meet various criteria set by the governments and institutions involved in student exchange programs.

Participants in the working group noted, however, that problems still exist when policy questions are raised about the equitable nature of such aid. For instance, noted one participant, self-supported students may represent social, ethnic or economically disadvantaged groups at home who are trying to help themselves by obtaining further education abroad. Can or should such policy issues be considered when fellowship aid is being provided by institutions and governments?

Participants pointed out that foreign students, in some cases, are provided more aid than is provided local students. This can lead to sticky political issues among the polity which supports higher education in the local context. One solution is to provide only partial subsidies in cases where foreign students can support part of their education.

Some participants noted various issues and problems surrounding the use of foreign research and teaching assistants on campuses. In cases where foreign teaching assistants have some difficulty with the host country's oral language, local students often complain that they can not understand the lectures. Some participants suggested the need for special training in teaching methods and in oral language for foreign teaching assistants used on host campuses.

Although marginal costs per foreign student on many campuses may be low, on the average, there are direct costs involved in provided services for foreign students, and there is considerable time spent by faculty members in dealing with the special problems of such students. Countries which, for public policy reasons, wish to encourage institutions of higher education to accept more foreign students and to provide special services for them must provide incentives to such institutions and their faculty members. Participants noted several examples of such incentives. For example, in Australia, the fees paid by foreign students are returned directly to the institutions where they study; in Japan, institutions with foreign students obtain special subsidies from the government.

What are the Key Institutional Policy Issues?

Participants suggested a broad range of institutional policy issues, some of which vary from country to country. Japan, for instance, is embarked on a policy to dramatically expand the numbers of foreign students in universities. The government is faced with the problem of encouraging institutions and faculty which have had little experience with foreign students to establish academic programs and services for such students. Although there are internationalists in all universities, the entire faculty must bear the load when sizeable numbers of foreign students arrive. How can faculty be motivated to deal with such issues?

The broader question may be how to encourage internationalization of universities in all countries. The curriculum, it can be argued, should be internationalized for the benefit of local students as well as for international students. Mechanisms such as area studies centers, which work with all academic departments on campus, curriculum development committees, and twinning arrangements with foreign universities are approaches that participants mentioned for encouraging internationalization of universities. Foreign students can be a catalyst in such efforts at internationalization, but there are many other players in the game, including interested members of the community who can be invited to participate in on-campus international activities. In addition, structured programs in cooperation with the community to engage foreign students in dialogue with community groups, organizations and families often assists in obtaining public support for internationalization of the university.

How to institutionalize services for foreign students is often a policy issue. Some participants suggested that an argument can be made for combining foreign student offices with international and area studies center infrastructures, where these exist. Such integration places foreign student issues squarely in the academic mainstream, rather than on the periphery, as in the case when foreign student offices are located in the administrative infrastructure, often in the registrar's office. Such issues, however, must be resolved locally and in the context of each setting.

Numerous policy issues surround the interface between universities and government policy. Immigration regulations often seem contradictory to good academic policy; government services offered in countries sending students abroad often affect choices that prospective traveling students make; policies concerning the award of government monies for fellowships and subsidies and for the support of university activities related to foreign students and internationalization of the universities need greater clarity and visibility.

What Research is Needed?

Participants noted that there is a significant body of research literature on problems of adaptation of foreign students in some countries, but that there appears to be a general scarcity of decision-oriented policy research on issues related to foreign students and to internationalization of higher education. Needed are better measures of institutional quality to assist sponsors and students in judging appropriate institutions and programs for foreign students. More institutional memory is needed so that institutions can learn from the experience of one another, both in terms of how they internationalize their programs and how they deal with foreign students.

Cost-benefit analyses are needed, and tracer studies to follow foreign students after they return home to see what the benefits have been to them and to the country and institution which provided their advanced education. Such studies would also provide information to help host institutions improve the programs and services they offer to foreign students.

More simple information sharing is needed between and among national and international groups involved in various aspects of student exchange and international education. Such information sharing is limited of the moment. For instance, Unesco maintains a register of study abroad opportunities which is updated regularly, the European Economic Community is embarking on similar efforts (as a part of their ERASMUS and TRACE programs to encourage much greater movement of students among universities in Common Market Countries), the Institute for International Education in New York has a related survey and publication, all with little or no cooperation with one another in the collection or collation of such data.

Regional groups such as the Organization of American States, the Organization of Arab Unity, the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, the South East Asian Ministers of Education Organization, the various regional development banks, and many other groups are engaged in various activities which relate to the internationalization of higher education and the flow of foreign students. There is need for an inventory of such work so that the various players in the game can be aware of what the others are doing.

What Next?

Participants in the working group were optimistic in that the flow of foreign students and the internationalization of universities seems to have a dynamic of its own. There is a momentum toward increasing mobility between and among university faculty and students, and a natural trend toward greater awareness of the international context in all academic specializations.

The institutional issues and problems to be faced will be many, and the approaches chosen by governments and universities will vary. But the future will clearly be one of greater sharing among scholarly institutions and programs worldwide.

16

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT BY FOREIGN STUDENTS: RAPPORTEUR'S REPORT ON WORKING GROUP B

Yoshiya Abe*

1. Scope and Issues

The social and cultural adjustment by foreign student was a most fundamental issue in the context of these two OECD seminars on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students. First, held in Zoetermeer in November 1985, focused attention on national policies on foreign students. And second, being held now in Hiroshima, set its focus on institutional policies and practices, while having in mind a broader theme of the internationalization of higher education and the contribution of foreign students.

This working group, then, was formed to work under the main framework of Foreign Students and Internationalization of Higher Education, and dig specifically into the social and cultural adjustment by foreign students. This group developed discussions on these issues that would provide an infra-structure, so to speak, for the more direct institutional policies and practices as regards the flow of foreign students.

The scope and issue papers prepared by the OECD secretariat observed that most of the problems of social and cultural adjustment occur in human relations viz. the daily contact with people in the community as well as professors, teaching assistants and classmates, and directs attention to support systems. It referred also to assistance given on a voluntary basis by various non-profit organizations, student associations and community people. It further cautioned that all programmes addressing adjustment needs must be developed in response to a larger question; How far should foreign students adapt themselves to the host country, in terms both of width and depth? In specific terms, it asked for some attention and discussion on support systems for such problems as accommodation, emergency funds, working permits and health/medical services.

---

* Professor, National Center for Development of Multimedia Education, Japan.

This working group, therefore, identified those approaches and programmes which had been found effective at facilitating the adjustment of foreign students into the host country. In order to increase the likelihood that foreign students will learn and successfully complete their studies, however, there were expressed seriously contrasting views, as to whether institutional support system were to be promoted or more laissez faire approach were to be adopted.

2. Social Programs and Human Relations

Relative to the discussion of social programmes that are intended to overcome problems of social and cultural adjustment, the need of pre-departure and early orientation program was given special importance from Japanese experience. The proposed improved orientation program envisions the combination of host country member based support system and co-national or other foreign student based support system.

Japanese approach to foreign students, to be noted, is laid out on a presupposition that all of them shall return home upon graduation and that, as they are not immigrants, they are not expected to make a total commitment to the host society.

At the other extreme is Australia, where about 21 percent of her population have been born elsewhere. Naturally, in Australia, systems for assisting people from many different backgrounds to settle into life permanently have been well developed. Although majority of migrants came from European countries, today seventy-five percent of foreign students in Australia come from Asian region, with Hong Kong, Indonesia and Malaysia supplying the greatest numbers. In major cities, there are large communities of migrants from the students' home countries, and advice and support are often provided from them.

So, in the past there was a tendency to treat foreign students as if they were migrants, and only recently, it has been recognized that special programmes and support systems are necessary for these students.

In the United States, on the other hand, issues relating to changing the legal status of foreign students have been raised in relation to the eligibility of temporary residents to Title IV aid, residency under Immigration and Naturalization Act, Immigration Reform and Control Act and Student Loans, and tuition differentials for foreign students.

These American issues, together with the traditional pattern in Australia, reveal the contrast of presuppositions between these countries where students from abroad constituted a group of would be immigrants and the countries where there was little expectation that foreign students would ever be absorbed into the host country as permanent residents.

3. Foreign Students: Their Difficulties and Institutional Support

If one accepts the presupposition that both students and the promoters of foreign student education are convinced that experiencing an unfamiliar culture is a great challenge and international and intercultural understanding is critically important for peaceful coexistence for both foreign students and host nationals, investment and efforts in providing support for foreign students comes up as an issue of primary importance.

The systems of institutional support are developed in response to the difficulties of the students as they face during their sojourn in their host country. Major difficulties for foreign students to face, as identified by Schütze through his observation of situations in OECD member countries are: finance, accommodation, language preparation, style of learning and social adjustment. These are the problems which foreign students in various host countries do face as well, and are, in the main, repeated by Uehara and Hicks in their survey of problems foreign students face in Japan.

Finance

Financial problems are the most serious of all the problems of Third World students. In most of OECD countries, as Schutze pointed out, foreign students are expected to self-finance their studies without resorting to gainful employment in the host country. In fact, proof of this financial ability is made one of the requirements for receiving a student visa.

Traditional measure to solve this difficulty has been the provision of scholarships. In Germany roughly one-third of students from developing countries are supported by scholarships or the official Student Support System; in France around 50 percent of the Third World students obtain grants either from their governments or from regional, national or international bodies; in the United Kingdom fifty-five percent of all students had a form of a scholarship. In Sweden, as in other countries, living expenses of foreign students are expected to be financed by sources outside Sweden, i.e. scholarships or private support. Recently Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has made substantial increase in scholarship aid, and Japanese universities administer and provide information on getting financial aids. Some universities, 52 out 474 institutions, give scholarships to foreign students.

Though host countries and host institutions have been making much efforts to release the financial difficulty of foreign student by the increase of scholarships, it does not solve this difficulty for all the foreign student. Due, in particular, to the increase in the cost of living, many foreign students are experiencing serious financial constraints.

Most realistic step to alleviate part of the financial pressure, as Schütze suggests, is to recognize the need for self-financing students to rely on supplementary income from part-time work. Part-time work can be combined with studies in a useful way when the student gather work experience related to the field of study, and even if this is not the case, it helps students to make social contacts and better understand some feature of working life in the host country. Teaching assistantships offered by the U.S. universities are typical, but Japan and other countries have not yet institutionalized such a system.

The Soviet Union, distinct from any case in OECD member countries, has developed a major university mainly for foreign students and it funds all of its foreign students. Altbach calls on special attention to such an approach.

Accommodation

Decent accommodation is very important to foreign students, but good intention of housing offices sometimes place foreign students together, thus ghettoizing them and emphasizing their separate status. In finding private accommodation, on the other hand, they tend to be disadvantaged as compared to domestic students.

In some host countries, including Japan, Third World students are given priorities over local students with respect to rooms in student dormitories. Particularly worthy of note is the organized cooperation of Japanese companies to lend company housing facilities to foreign students at very low price.

Language Preparation

Having a good command of the language of the host country is of pivotal importance for the social integration and academic success of foreign students.

While Third World students arriving in Spain, France or the United Kingdom and the United States can be expected to have at least some basic knowledge of the host country's language, this is not normal in the German speaking countries, Scandinavian countries or in Japan.

Academic training in these countries, therefore must be preceded by language studies, and this is mostly done in the host country. In some cases these are combined with general preparatory courses and these courses usually aim at enabling students to follow and actively participate in the host country's academic programs.

Student status is, as Altbach points out, laden with tension almost by definition; the challenge of learning and of being evaluated. In addition, while foreign students are part of the student culture, they are often older than their domestic compeers, often have held responsible professional positions in their home countries, and find adjustment to student culture difficult.

Foreign students in Japan are placed in communication gap due to environmental, educational and cultural factors. These factors, according to Uehara and Hicks, are derived from housing system, lack of skilled cross-cultural counselors and Japanese language.

Style of Learning

Style of learning is another factor that troubles foreign students. Third World students are found to just memorize and regurgitate and accept teachers' words uncritically. Also Third World students are often found to have greater difficulties with the specific interaction and learning methods of group work, preferring to work by themselves.

This question attracted much attention, and more elaborate argument was pursued later, in connection with Australian experience.

Social Adjustment

On the basis of critical observation of Japanese national universities, for a better preparation for the future, it has been recommended to reconsider and redefine the support structure to foreign students. In particular, clearer definition of the roles and responsibilities of foreign student advisors and tutors is strongly recommended. Secondly, reconsideration and strengthening of the orientation programs is recommended. Also called for is more cooperation between private and national universities, more presentation of Asian, African and non-Western studies in Japanese universities, and more cooperation between individual Japanese institutions and institutions abroad.

On the other hand, from the experience of social and cultural adjustment of foreign students from Western Europe, and taking note of the fact that OECD countries provide the majority of the learning site, while the majority of the foreign students are from the Third World, Schütze supports the Secretariat's scope as presented in the Issue Paper which reads; "Social and cultural adjustment may be no less important than academic arrangements for increasing the likelihood that foreign students will learn and successfully complete their studies. Acknowledging that the social, cultural and bureaucratic conditions under which foreign students are living during the course of their study period in the host country are sometimes more severe handicaps for their success in studies than the actual academic conditions."

The measures and programs to promote cultural and social adjustment were related to those to reassure re-acculturation and readjustment.

Students who have succeeded best in adjusting to the cultural and social environment of the host country are those who find it most difficult to return to their own country upon completion of their studies. As regards a foreign student in Germany, the average length of stay aiming at a full graduate university degree is nine years. Readjustment of a young adult who formulated his personality abroad must face evermore difficult task than initial adjustment and thus may result in "brain drain."

Discussion that followed considered dealt with several specific issues. For example, the question concerning the preoccupation or image. The preconception of Japan by the Western and Asian students before their coming might be summed up as being formal and racist. Then after living in Japan for a while they usually come to amend that perception; and fell that they are not as bad as they had expected. Similar perception gap is applicable to other countries. Germany, as students preconceive, is modern and precise, but cultural heritage of fiesta also prevails.

A suggestion to consider variables relative to adjustment problem was presented; namely, cultural background of the foreign students, level of studies, and cultural traits of host country. To illustrate, graduate students face little adjustment problem, probably because they are dealing with more universal question and also rely more on self-study.

The difference of expectation was also mentioned as a possible variable that affect the growth of foreign student; in Australia where 80 percent of foreign students are Asians, the Japanese achieve better than the Chinese in English proficiency during first half year, but the Chinese continue slow but steady growth and achieve eventually a higher level than the Japanese. It is probably because the Japanese expect to return home, while the Chinese expect to build their career in the new English speaking environment.

Difficulties arising from the difference of the customs of native and host countries were also raised. In securing accommodation, for example, a Third World student may invite his firends to stay while making a housing contract for only one person to live.

Difference of learning style causes additional difficulty; Third World students tend only to take note from teachers' lectures and they are not accustomed to the use of library and independent reading. Ideas and examples to cope with these difficulties were presented, including the orientation to teachers of host country, building up receptive environment, repeated orientation of home stay families, inter-university seminar under the same roof over two weeks, etc.

With these diverse development in mind, a suggestion was presented for the establishment of an Information Network on foreign students.

4. Nationalizing the Style of Learning

The Australian and American experiences, as presented by Ballard, Olivas and Altbach, revealed the approach or tradition of these countries to nationalize or to naturalize overseas, rather than foreign students. The goal set forth for the overseas students is to make them assimilate in the new culture and to let them learn and behave in the disputatious style of the Occidental tradition by disposing their original style of learning and living.

In Australia, non-Australian students are referred to as overseas students, rather than as foreign students; it reflects the expectation that they are envisioned as people to be naturalized and nationalized, rather than as international and temporal visitors. It is recognized that the most important areas in which these overseas students require specific assistance is bridging the gap between their previous study methods and that within Australian academic system.

It is strongly insisted that there are distinct patterns within Australian academic system. They demand that evidence is critically analyzed, that arguments are derived from the relationship between competing theories and data and that a conclusion is reached out of an evaluation of the conflicting arguments.

Students from Asian cultures, from the Australian observer, are trained not to question the authority of the lecturer, the printed words, or the findings of experts. Once they have recognized what is expected of them by their lecturers, they can learn how to read widely and critically in the literature of their subject. Even if they read intensively and painstakingly, when they do so without it, they lose sight of the major issues. They become more ready to participate in seminar discussions, once they realize that their criticism and questioning can contribute to a better analysis.

Critical approach to knowledge is expected of students in Australia and the same is expected of overseas students in Australia. Observers from European countries seemed to agree in their assessment of this cultural factor—the style of learning—as decisive of academic achievement as linguistic problems. A German observer commented that the style of learning the student is used to plays probably an even more significant role.

Naturalization and assimilation of the sons and daughters of immigrants and immigrants themselves have long been an important function of American higher education institutions. Thus the paper entitled "The Changing Legal Status of Foreign Students in the United States" by Olivas was an important contribution when foreign students were discussed in the context of cultural adjustment. Immigration regulations, legal control concerning labor and employment, and future effect on the government were identified as major issues of current concern. If summarized, legal and fiscal mechanisms of foreign student exchange are categorized into six types; 1. Treaties, 2. Compacts, 3. Numerical Quotas, 4. Tuition/Fee differentials, 5. Open, and 6. Miscellaneous requirements.

Through the observation of current legal practices in the United States, the American tendency is to look at foreign students as reserves of immigrants. The innate culture of Australia and the United States of receiving new comers as immigrants and assimilate and naturalize them into the new culture is distinctive. The style of learning question in these setting gets a new light and a new thrust, even compared with the response of the European counterparts, not to speak of the Japanese.

5. Argument for Partial Inaction

While admitting that adjustment issues have been a concern of organizations concerned with foreign students, and that the social, psychological and academic adjustment of foreign students is one of the most important aspect of concern, Altbach contends that the foreign student community might be too concerned with adjustment issues and that a more laissez faire approach may be just as effective.

In an era when foreign study has become a mass enterprise, he argues, it is no longer practical to provide much individual attention to individual students. This is particularly the case when the majority and the increasing portion of foreign students in the world are self-financed.

Recent growth of the total number of international students is phenomenal. The gradual growth of foreign students through the 80's and 90's appears to be inevitable, and yet financial growth of the 80's and 90's can hardly be expected in the area of cultural and social adjustment of foreign students. Whereas appropriate adjustment is needed for the successful completion of any academic program, he argues, all students, regardless of their nationality or place of study, face problems of adjustment, thus implying special treatment of foreign students may be unnecessary.

Referring to the history of the university, and recalling that medieval European universities were from the beginning international institutions with large numbers of foreign students, Altbach reminds that these early universities, including the Universities of Paris and Bologna, the basic models for European higher education, had no student services at all.

France, for a contemporary example, hosts more students than does the United States, Canada or Britain as a proportion of the student population, yet France has traditionally not provided much in terms of assistance with foreign student adjustment, although it subsidizes the cost of higher education for all students, including foreign students.

Such pressures as the increasingly large number of foreign students from Third World nations, the cost of providing professional services to these students, the ambiguity of the effect of these services and the budget-minded legislatures make extensive programmes to assist foreign student adjustment difficult. Altbach comes to a conclusion that it may be impractical to increase services for foreign students.

6. Toward Action for Better Understanding

While recognizing that providing the kind of service or expertise that would significantly ameliorate adjustment problems is difficult at the present time, Altbach affirms that there are things that can be done to build a knowledge base and prepare an agenda for action.

As an agenda for action, Altbach concludes a basic need is for research—studies of sufficiently large groups of students in different host countries and from ranges of sending nations.

Discussions that followed concerned with several concrete instances concerning adjustment problems and directions toward successful solutions.

Language was recognized as the central prerequisite of successful adjustment of foreign students to host society and their achievement of academic goals. Peculiar example of difficulty was raised in this connection. Chinese students who come to study in Japan have learned some Japanese, but they usually lack any training in English. As English vocabularies are abundantly integrated in academic or scientific Japanese, those students without any knowledge of English technical vocabularies are heavily handicapped or deterred in Japanese teaching-learning process. This particular issue has to do with the dominant, critical style of study, without which modern learning process is hard to get started. English as dominant language of science or the critical style of learning as a universal base of contemporary higher education is perhaps beyond the concept of international understanding.

The reasons and objectives of choosing a host country were presented for discussion by reviewing responses from foreign students who chose to come to Japan. They were summarized into three categories: 1. to engage in research that is uniquely available in Japan, 2. to learn Japanese, and 3. to be sponsored either by scholarships or by friends and/or relatives. These reasons were found to apply to foreign students coming to the United States, and other countries as well.

The attitude of the host country to foreign students may differ according to the level and the kinds of individual student. Canada, for example, differentiate the status for undergraduate and graduate students. Because graduate students are considered to serve Canada in their research capabilities, they are exempted from fee differential imposed on non-resident undergraduate students.

Attention was also paid to the recent development in the internationalization of universities. The international flow of students, primarily from Third World to Centers of Learning, is constantly growing in numbers. A new phase, however, is the internationalization at institutional level. American and British universities, for example, are setting up their branch campuses in Japan, and Japanese universities are establishing branch campuses in Europe, U.K. and U.S. etc. These movements, it was mentioned, may require a new agenda for research.

The forum on the whole, recognized the diversification of the internationalizing universities worldwide. Through the observation of the foreign student adjustment issue, the forum came to recognize the need of research and compilation of concrete data on these issues. Particularly important, it appeared, was a viewpoint of internationalization which is beyond the traditional concept of student exchange. Internationalization challenges the universities worldwide. What are really taking place and what are their real consequences ought to be followed carefully. The trend is not only with positive effect, but it accompanies a host of negative effects. Then what necessarily follows is the evaluation and the assessment of the consequences of internationalization of the universities worldwide.

17

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND THE PROMOTION OF THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN HOST NATIONS: GENERAL RAPPORTEUR'S REPORT

Douglas M. Windham*

Introduction

The adequacy of a rapporteur's report such as this appears inevitably to be inverse to the quality of the activity upon which the report is based. The distinction and diversity of the presentations and discussions that took place during the CERI's Second International Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students, held in Hiroshima, Japan, from 8th-10th November, 1988, make the job of summarisation even more difficult. What this report shall attempt to do is to structure the comments in such a manner that they will have value both for those who participated in the Seminar and for those who have had access to the formal papers, country reports, and other formal documentation of the Seminar, but were not privy to the discussions and debates that contributed so much to the full benefits offered by the Seminar.

Evidence is presented throughout the country reports and in the OECD Secretariat's "Scope and Issues" paper that higher educational systems and government policy makers continue to confront difficult and critical questions on how policies and practices at the higher education institutional level actually meet the needs of the foreign students while serving the legitimate domestic and international functions that justify continued public support of higher education. The scope of the Hiroshima Seminar was defined by the OECD Secretariat as "the issues and problems facing OECD countries as *hosts* to foreign students" (emphasis added). The stress on the host role was explicit and was reflected in the Seminar design and in the commissioning of formal papers and of country reports.

---

* Professor, State University of New York at Albany, U.S.A.

Within the general heading of "Foreign Students and the Internationalisation of Higher Education," three major sub-topics were addressed:

i) Institutional policies toward foreign students;
ii) Specific measures and programmes for foreign students; and
iii) Social and cultural adjustments by foreign students.

As a review of the formal papers and country reports will indicate, the Seminar was characterised by a diversity of both viewpoint and opinion. As to the former, some authors approached the Seminar topics from a high level of abstraction and often dealt with issues of both ideology and national policy. Other authors focused on the practical problems of institutional and individual student behaviour.

The diverse variety of opinion was only partly a reflection of these issues of varying ideological of structural orientations. More important, the differences in opinions are highly correlated with the current political and financial context of higher education and of foreign student participation in the individual countries. While all OECD Member countries appear to share an opinion that the foreign student/higher education topic is a critical one, it is obvious that the nature of the issues varies from country to country. At times, as among Japan, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and the United States, these variations are differences of emphasis rather than of the nature of problems (all are eager to increase foreign student participation, but the context is dissimilar in each country).

However, elsewhere in the OECD (especially in France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands) the context for increased foreign student participation is much more internally complex and country-specific. The rule for all readers to use is that any summary comments made here, as in the individual papers (and even in the country reports), should be considered as indications of patterns, but not of uniformity in context or in institutional or national response.

The Internationalisation Process and the Foreign Student Role

The best means of organising the information presented on the foreign student role in the internationalisation of higher education, given the recurring need to define concepts and to clarify semantic confusions, is to consider the meaning of five terms that had prominence in the Seminar:

i) Internationalisation;
ii) Foreign students;

iii) Institutional policy;
iv) Impacts of Foreign Students—Potential Benefits and Potential Burdens; and
v) The interests of foreign students.

Internationalisation

Both the OECD Secretariat's scope and issues paper (CERI/IE/88.02) and Professor Ebuchi's excellent introductory presentation defined the internationalisation of higher education as a *process* of *institutional* development. Within this process higher education institutions (and eventually systems) would become more broadly applicable to all students irrespective of the students' national origins. Professor Ebuchi stressed that the process of internationalisation should change not just how the institution behaves, but also should alter the institution's perspectives on the appropriate roles of students, professors, and administrators, and on the design of programme structures, curricula, and evaluative measures and standards.

Foreign Students

Throughout the Seminar, participants used an inclusive definition: graduate and undergraduate; full or part-time; degree and non-degree; single site or split-site; and both academic/professional and vocational/technical students were considered. However, the discussion stressed the need to recognise that some foreign student issues were specific to certain student sub-groups. The danger of aggregating dissimilar students into an inappropriate summary category was emphasized as a problem both in analysing student problems and in the design of institutional responses.

Several participants suggested abandoning the term of "foreign" students and substituting in its place the term "international students." It was remarked that the latter term applied more appropriately to the form of education received rather than to the national origin of the student. The justifications for the suggested change included a need to reduce even the semantic barriers separating "foreign" and "domestic" students and the need to provide international perspectives and experiences to all students (some speakers stressed the latter need *especially* for domestic students). Obviously, certain political and legal requirements will necessitate continuing to identify students by national origin; the point of this discussion is that such classification should not dominate all perspectives on the problems of these students and the nature of the appropriate institutional responses. For purposes of consistency, this report will use the term foreign student, but with an explicit desire to avoid any implications of exclusion.

The best articulation of the positive opportunities inherent in foreign student "problems" was made in Dr. Wagner's keynote address wherein he emphasized the generalisability of the lessons learned from dealing with foreign student issues to more generic problems of institution-student relations. He, supported by comments from several participants, indicated that the problems of foreign students differed more in degree than in type from those of domestic students (even language training is becoming an issue for domestic students in those nations with significant first-generation immigrant populations or language minorities). Dr. Wagner provided a valuable insight in recognising that the institutional response to foreign student needs represents a "leading-edge" reform in the re-examination of higher education student policies.

Institutional Policies

It was suggested at the outset of discussions that the term "institutional policies" be broadened to represent the full range of *policies* and *practices* of higher education institutions toward foreign students. The actual impact of policies is in how they determine actual institutional practice; in addition, policies that do not have the full support of the university or college community can be neutralised if the effects of institutional practices are not congruent with the goals of institutional policies.

A second set of suggestions made regarding this concept was to expand the discussion to include the following:

i) National and sub-national policies;
ii) Laws, including both constitutional and legislative rights and requirements;
iii) Sub-institutional policies (at programme or department level, for example);
iv) Administrative arrangements, treaties and contracts (including multi-institution agreements or consortia); and
v) Market forces.

The justification for this expansion of the "institutional response" concept was the need to recognise that institutions, in designing policies and implementing practices, do not operate in a political, economic, legal, or bureaucratic vacuum.

The institutions' actions either will be facilitated or constrained by the effects of each of the five environmental contexts noted above. To analyse the effectiveness of the institution's response to foreign students without consideration of national policies, contractual obligations, or the supply and demand of instructors and students would be a futile enterprise at best, and, at worst, could lead to institutional reforms that ultimately prove to be counterproductive to either institutional or foreign student interests.

The Impacts of Foreign Students – Potential Benefits and Potential Burdens

Much of the activity of the Seminar's two working groups focused on the assessment of the benefits and of the burdens imposed by having foreign students in an institution. An analysis of these impacts is the first step in answering the question of why institutions accept (and why some institutions actively recruit) foreign students. Professor Spaulding asked the joint question: can impacts be documented and why is it necessary to do so? The answer to the first question is yes – but with significant reservations. As to the second question, three major justifications exist for improving the documentation of foreign student impacts:

i) To allow institutions to conduct internal self-evaluations of foreign student programmes in the same manner as they would evaluations of other major programme components;
ii) To inform and persuade individuals involved in foreign student programmes to operate on a basis of facts rather than on untested assumptions and possibly misleading hypotheses; and
iii) To move any potential debate concerning foreign students away from emotional to logical discussion and from potential demagoguery to responsible discourse.

The specific steps for documenting the impacts of foreign students are the same as for all evaluative procedures:

i) Identification;
ii) Definition and operationalisation;
iii) Measurement of amount and incidence (to whom does the benefit accrue);
iv) Analysis.

The reservation expressed about this process is the inherent tendency of analysts to identify a wide range of financial, organisational, behavioural, attitudinal, and affective impacts and then to operationalise only the financial impacts. The danger of this bias, especially in a situation such as foreign student contributions to the internationalisation of higher education, is that the financial impacts (or at least that part of the total easily translatable in financial terms) may represent a minority of the total impacts or at least a less than representative amount of the total. This could cause policy makers, who are dependent upon the evaluation measures, to undervalue the benefits of or overvalue the burdens posed by foreign students to the institutions they attend.

It may be anticipated that the impacts generated by foreign students will differ by many personal and contextual factors including the type of institution and programme attended, the personal characteristics of the student, the absolute and relative number of foreign students in specific programmes or institutions, the capacity of the institution to add new students without new costs or with less than proportionate costs, and the fee structures of the institution (ranging from fully-subsidised to "full-cost" systems). Since each of these conditions are subject to change, the higher education institutions in OECD countries must be prepared to engage in forecasts of future institutional conditions and student characteristics before formulating long-term policies. A dramatic increase in domestic student participation or new enrolment of foreign students with significantly greater need for social and cultural adaptation are examples of two changes that dramatically could alter the scale and nature of benefits derived from foreign student participation.

A point made in the paper presented by Professor Windham and Dr. Wagner is that one always must consider the *incidence* of the net benefits. While the society or institution may benefit from foreign student participation, certain instructors or domestic students may benefit in a different manner, may not benefit, or even may be asked to bear certain personal costs. The conclusion reached by Windham and Wagner is that one always must assess the net benefit (benefit minus cost) for each individual or group in order to assess their incentive to support or oppose a specific change in policies or practices toward foreign students.

As professor Spaulding's presentation made clear, there is a danger among certain advocates of foreign student programmes to assume that the benefits are self-evident to everyone. However, as the current political debate in several OECD countries indicates, advocates will be placed under an increasing responsibility in the future to document the benefits of foreign student participation in a more explicit manner.

This is a legitimate political expectation and a failure to document these benefits will occur not because of a lack of documentable benefits but only because of a failure of administrators and researchers to take the initiative to prepare such analyses. An important part of this initiative should be to educate policy makers concerning the reality that all benefits are not translatable into financial terms, but that non-financial benefits can still be documented and are a legitimate part of the political calculus concerning foreign students.

It would be naive to ignore the issue of the costs of foreign student participation in OECD country higher education institutions. The special working group dealing with social and cultural adjustment covered a wide variety of areas where institutional responses are necessitated by the presence of foreign students. The areas discussed included:

i) Language training;
ii) Living accommodations;
iii) Increased teaching and/or administrative staff (especially counsellors);
iv) Learning style adjustments (in curriculum and in teaching);
v) Social integration problems;
vi) Issues of inter-cultural respect, understanding and sensitivity;
vii) Legal status monitoring;
viii) Fulfilling inter-institutional obligations;
ix) The provision of both direct and implicit (subsidies of tuition, for example) financial assistance; and
x) Instituting new forms of programmes and student evaluation, new course structures and revised curricular content.

Again, potential burdens do not fall on all parts of higher education or on all individuals equally; thus the incentive to support foreign student participation will depend on the actual incidence of the burdens as well as on their type and amount. It also must be remembered that for many of the "burdens" imposed, there is an offsetting benefit from the institution's adaptation to the needs of foreign students.

Some participants expressed a concern with documentation of burdens and felt that such research would have a negative effect on administrator or policy maker support in their nations for foreign student programmes. Regardless of the validity of these assertions (and they ignore the ability of opponents of such programmes to generate their own, often exaggerated, estimates of foreign student burdens), proper administrative and policy maker decision making requires accurate documentation of both potential burdens and potential benefits. Also, the costs should be done by those professionals familiar with the administrative, social and cultural context of the programmes, not just by financial analysts concerned only with the easily measured monetary aspects of benefits and burdens (not all financial analysts share this myopia, but it is a legitimate concern). The discussion during the Seminar suggested that even an analysis of a broadly defined statement of benefits and costs would be unacceptable to certain participants.

Some of this opposition exits because of an inability by some participants to recognise that a comparison of benefits and burdens is an inherently logical process and not a technique reserved to economists or to the comparison of monetary alternatives. However, most opposition expressed by the Seminar participants was of a more sophisticated variety. They simply questioned the ability of any analysts to prevent net benefit analyses from devolving from the broad definition of the impacts of foreign students (both positive and negative) advocated in the Seminar to the narrow specification of financial pluses and minuses that characterises much of the benefit/cost literature. Several participants also questioned whether the analysis could incorporate the ideas raised by Dr. Wagner's assertion that the foreign student responses would be generalisable and beneficial to domestic students.

The scepticism expressed is justified. However, the refusal of advocates or neutral parties to engage in such analyses will not prevent such analyses from being done. CERI appears to be a uniquely appropriate institution to promote an improved methodology for the *separate* identification and calculation of foreign student benefits and costs. Individual countries and institutions then could decide how *they* would use this information; some may present only assessments of benefit or only analyses of burdens and their costs; others may choose to present formal benefit-cost comparisons. In any case, the *use* and *dissemination* of such analyses should be an institution-specific and nation-specific privilege. Before these achievements can be realised, however, it will be necessary for CERI or some other organisation to improve the analytical consensus concerning the nature of benefits and costs to be considered and to resolve the remaining methodological debates over measurement and analysis.

Interests of Foreign Students

Early in the Seminar, a number of participants questioned the emphasis of the Seminar on the role of institutions as *hosts* to foreign students. The participants were concerned that the interests of the students themselves would not be given adequate attention. However, the formal papers, the country reports, and the Seminar discussion assuaged this concern.

It was demonstrated in the Seminar that both altruism and institutional self-interest mandated that the interests of foreign students be considered. If such interests were ignored or undervalued in the short run, the institution would be the loser in the long term. To achieve the full benefits of foreign student participation and to minimise the costs, institutions must avoid the extremes off both false generosity and narrowly defined institutional self-interest. It must be recognised that foreign students are not simply beneficiaries of institutional largesse nor are they recipients of an international welfare transfer payment.

Foreign students should not be viewed as a burden of a nation's colonial heritage nor as responsibility because of a nation's relative economic success. Also, foreign students should not be viewed as new markets to be exploited cynically to solve problems of institutional excess capacity or as a means of generating hidden subsidies to domestic students.

Foreign students should be *full partners* in the process of the internationalisation of higher education. They require respect not forbearance: institutions should seek the foreign students' *satisfaction* with the education and training they receive, not their gratitude because the host nations have provided it.

The Seminar discussion stressed this focus on the partnership concept as a model for the development of national policies, laws and institutional responses related to foreign students. By recognising the *inherent reciprocity* of benefits and burdens in the partnership relationship, the institutions will be able to develop responses that maximise benefits for both domestic and foreign students while retaining the ability to serve the larger public interests in higher education. This same partnership concept also can be extended as a basis for institution to institution relations and for multinational arrangements. As Dr. Schnitzer noted in his formal paper, the present emphasis on the sending and host nation dichotomy is less a clarification of *who* benefits and more a description of the *nature* of the benefits received. As more countries become both sending and receiving nations (under formal arrangements such as ERASMUS or as a result of the facilitation of greater individual student choice) the sending-host nation distinction will become even less useful.

Future Work

The papers, reports and discussions of the Seminar were wide-ranging because of the breadth of the topic and the varying national and individual perspectives of the participants. As noted at the beginning, this report cannot do justice to either the quality or the diversity of the Seminar's content; one hopes it has, however, provided a structure within which the Seminar's complexity can be better understood and valued.

The role of foreign students in furthering internationalisation in higher education remains to be clarified — then reforms need to be designed and implemented to further this goal. The Seminar in Hiroshima advanced this process of clarification and reform, but exists as a foundation (not as a capstone) for needed activity. Whether appropriate succeeding steps are initiated will be the ultimate test of the contribution of the Seminar. The immediate need is to move from an identification of problems to activities that will identify specific ideas for improved policy and practice.

In promoting work on the internationalisation of higher education, CERI should stress the widest possible definitions of (monetary and nonmonetary) benefits and burdens. While the effects of internationalisation can be personal and monetary in part, there also are substantial societal and non-monetary effects. It is important to stress that general intangible effects are not inherently of less importance. The city of Hiroshima, where this Seminar was held, is a living testament to the fact that the promotion of international understanding and good will is not just a *useful outcome* but is an *essential condition* if modern societies are to survive and prosper.

It is important to recognise that CERI can only do so much itself; however, as a catalyst, facilitator, compiler, analyst and disseminator, CERI can play central roles in improving not just the specific effectiveness of foreign student programmes in higher education, but the general effectiveness of higher educational systems throughout the OECD community. OECD/CERI need not take an advocacy position on specific methodologies or policy conclusions; its contribution will be made in linking research to analysis and analysis to innovation and in the dissemination of the outcomes of this work.

Three major sets of research activities must precede further advancement of the practitioners' and policy makers' understanding of this topic:

i) A set of focused research efforts on the nature and extent of foreign student impacts under diverse national, institutional, and programme contexts;

ii) A set of country-specific analyses of the general topic of foreign student impacts and of special topics unique to certain national contexts; and

iii) A set of multinational reviews and evaluations of the specifics of intra-institutional adaptation to and service for foreign students in the areas noted earlier (e.g., housing, language, curricular adjustment).

This research agenda should have a policy-orientation (both for national policy and institutional policy) and should benefit from the existing and emerging body of work on these topics.

An appropriate role for CERI is to focus on encouraging the following activities:

i) Preparation of informational syntheses of the type suggested in CERI/OECD Secretariat's summary of the country reports presented at the Seminar;

ii) Development of bibliographic reviews of specific foreign student impact sub-topics with an emphasis on analysis rather than simply compilation of the studies;

iii) Commissioning of conceptual framework papers to clarify the decision contexts for administrators and other decision makers (these could stress the methodological issues related to valuation of costs and benefits or the information/incentive framework within which institutional, student and sponsor decisions are made);

iv) Improvement of dissemination including wider distribution of reports and the design of future seminars or conferences to include a wider population of agencies interested in these topics (including possible encouragement of participation by representatives of those countries outside OECD that provide OECD Member countries with significant numbers of foreign students);

v) Facilitation of individual country and country subset analyses on the general foreign student topic of appropriate sub-topics; and

vi) Initiate case studies of innovative institutional responses and encourage pilot studies to determine sensitivity of analyses to the different legal and administrative structures that exist among the OECD nations' higher education systems.

The foreign student issue in higher education provides a fortuitous congruence of benefits from the potential research and analyses proposed in the Seminar. Specific benefits will be created in terms of improved policies and practices for institutions and an enhanced learning environment for both foreign and domestic students. Both the receiving and sending countries will find their foreign student investments to be more productive in social, political and economic aspects. Finally, whether explicit or not, research on foreign students promotes improved higher education for all through generalisable findings and lessons learned. Continued OECD support for this agenda is justified in terms of the OECD community's self-interest and of its role as an international leader in research and innovation.

APPENDIX

Appendix 1

FOREIGN STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: SCOPE AND ISSUES*

OECD/CERI Secretariat

Introduction

Background

Since the first OECD/CERI International Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students in Zoetermeer (the Netherlands), in November, 1985, interest in the effects of and provisions for such students in OECD Member countries has continued to grow. The interest may be explained, in part, by the numbers and national origins of foreign students. By 1985, some 773,000 foreign nationals were enrolled, accounting for nearly 3.5 per cent of total higher education enrolments in OECD Member countries. Notably, according to the most recent figures, 64 per cent of foreign students came from less developed countries (LDCs). This proportion is up substantially from the 1960s.

In the 1970s, the increase in the number of foreign students raised several issues for higher education policy in many OECD countries. The issues were principally linked to questions of cost and quality. Foreign students imposed some additional burdens on institutional or system budges already stretched to cover cutbacks in real per student subsidies provided by governments. Institutions and governments became concerned that available resources were not sufficient to accommodate both domestic *and* foreign students, particularly in some programmes. Moreover, faculties increasingly questioned the adequacy of foreign student preparation and training, including facility in the language of instruction. The debates on these issues led to the introduction of more restrictive policies toward foreign students in such countries. The policies took the form of differentiated tuition, special fees, quota systems, higher requirements for admission, and strict visa formalities, among others.

---

* Paper prepared for discussion at the seminar.

More recently, however, governments and institutions of higher education in many OECD countries have sought ways to attract *more* foreign students. In some countries, these new efforts emerge as part of broader policies intended to foster greater international co-operation and exchange in all activities. Such policies seek to encourage strong ties with current and potential trading partners (particularly in the developing world) by developing in foreign students a familiarity with host country language and customs. In other countries, the interest in attracting more foreign students derives largely from the need to sustain programmes experiencing a decline in enrolments and finances. For these programmes, foreign students bring much needed financial resources. Equally important, foreign students themselves provide the human resources necessary to man laboratories and classrooms.

These developments have broad implications for higher education which have not been fully explored within OECD countries. Firstly, institutions and systems of higher education have begun to confront an increasingly competitive "market" for foreign students. Students, governments and third-party donors entering this market as "buyers" of training have come to expect higher education institutions to recognise and address their interests and needs. The institutional policies and innovative programmes developed to accommodate foreign student training and social needs, therefore, represent a partial response to these "market" pressures.

Secondly, notwithstanding the extent to which national polices restrict or encourage foreign student enrolment, governments in all countries have increasingly intervened directly on foreign student problems rather than leaving the responsibility for addressing such matters to individual institutions of higher education. Notably, policies affecting the financing of higher education, admission/enrolment to institutions, quota systems, visa formalities, and residence permission among others have been linked to larger political and economic objectives. These objectives include trade/commercial interests in both short-term and long-term perspectives, international understanding, foreign exchange control, export promotion, development aid, diffusion of culture and language, and migration policy.

While neither of these broader implications can be fully addressed within the framework of the Seminar, both warrant further reflection and study within the Innovation Exchange Activities or through some other appropriate means.

Framework for the Second Seminar

While the importance attached to foreign student enrolments has, by now, been generally recognised in every OECD country, systems and institutions of higher education continue to confront difficult and critical questions on how policies and practices at the institutional level actually meet the various needs of foreign students. This Seminar will be concerned specifically with the policies as well as practical measures and arrangements which institutions adopt to serve both the training requirements and social and cultural adjustment needs of foreign students enrolling in OECD countries.

This aspect of the issue of foreign students falls quite naturally within the framework of the present OECD/CERI innovation exchange activity, i.e., "Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students." Although most of the current concerns about foreign students have been focused on the macro-dimensions described earlier, significant attempts have been made at the institutional level in many OECD countries specifically to serve the needs of foreign students. Institutions have sought to develop appropriate course structures, contents of studies, and teaching methods for students with quite varied needs. Also, social programmes have been introduced specifically to facilitate the social, cultural, and academic adaptation of foreign students in host countries and institutions, and to ease their re-entry into their home countries.

This aspect of the foreign student issue is not confined to a narrow concern about how to teach foreign students or how to facilitate international exchange activities in the universities. It is related to such broader questions for higher education systems as to how the diverse needs of all students, domestic and international, are to be met and the role which foreign students play in meeting these needs. From this broader perspective, the active interaction between higher education institutions and foreign students is emphasized, rather than simple one-way special arrangements/treatments by the institutions for foreign students.

The French country report to the Zoetermeer Seminar provided a good example for such a perspective. After reviewing the experience of the Training Seminars in Information and Counselling for foreign students, the French education authorities concluded that "information and tuition back-up were just as necessary for French Students." Thus, some measures designed for foreign students might also be effective, and sometimes even necessary, for domestic students. This general observation should not be surprising, because even the "special needs" of foreign students often find counterparts among the needs and goals of domestic students.

The broader perspective can be illustrated in yet another way. Many OECD countries have already passed through periods when higher education systems expanded rapidly, partly to accommodate greater participation from diverse groups previously under-represented in the student body. Most of these countries have subsequently experienced a decline in enrolments which have again led to a diversification of the student body as a result of the inflow of larger numbers of new clienteles such as adults. It follows, then, that higher education systems have had to cope with the needs of increasingly diverse groups of students. The attention directed towards foreign students differs in detail, but not in general form, from earlier responses. From this perspective, an investigation of institutional policies and practices addressed to foreign student needs may be taken as an object lesson. It also provides an indication of how well systems and institutions of higher education maintain flexibility and adapt and extend educational provision in the face of changing demands, incentives and constraints.

Discussions in the Seminar, however, will start by identifying and discussing specific policies, measures, and experiences in higher education institutions in Member countries directed toward the development of foreign student education. In the following sections of the present paper, an effort is made to give a more detailed sketch of the Seminar themes as well as to further clarify the matters to be discussed.

It should be noted here that the scope of the Seminar is directed principally toward the issues and problems facing OECD countries as hosts to foreign students. Further, the Seminar will put more emphasis on issues and problems related to students from developing countries who come with the specific intention of pursuing studies in higher education institutions. This focus means that less attention will be given to foreign student from OECD countries or to children of long-term foreign residents or foreign worker families. However, the emphasis on students from LDCs is not intended to exclude discussion of issues common to all three groups of foreign students.

As appropriate, due consideration will be given to differences among categories of foreign students (e.g., postgraduate vs. undergraduate, government sponsored vs. privately financed, professional training vs. academic courses, etc.).

Since the goal of the Innovation Exchange Activities is to explore and discover innovations through an exchange of views, experiences, and information on particular problems among interested countries, innovative approaches and practices with respect to foreign students, particularly at the institutional level, are expected to be presented and discussed.

Issues

The presentations and discussions at the Seminar will focus on the following themes:

Main theme:

Foreign Students and Internationalisation of Higher Education.

Sub-themes :

1) Institutional policies toward foreign students;
2) Specific measures and programmes for foreign students;
3) Social and cultural adjustment by foreign students.

Foreign Students and Internationalisation of Higher Education

Although the Seminar will focus on specific policies and arrangements which institutions adopt both to meet academic and training needs of foreign students and to facilitate the social, cultural, and academic adaptation in their host countries and institutions, the Seminar will reach beyond "passive" counter measures/arrangements designed to cope with the flow of foreign students. It could be too ambitious at this stage, but it is expected that the Seminar will stimulate a further discussion of the extent to which policies and practices directed toward foreign students bring about changes contributing to the "internationalisation" of higher education.

"*Internationalisation*" has quite different meanings in different settings. As used here, "the internationalisation of higher education" refers to a process by which the educational provision of a higher education system becomes more sophisticated, enriched and broadly applicable to students from all backgrounds and countries. Emphasis is placed on the development of programmes which are internationally and cross-culturally compatible, with a view toward providing all students with experiences and training necessary to develop skills for life in a world characterised by increasing international exchange. This definition of "internationalisation of higher education" is offered both to convey the essence of the Seminar's main theme and to provoke discussion.

The Seminar will thus be organised to explore the "positive" role and impact of foreign students for the internationalisation of higher education and the "active" policies and measures through which institutions encourage that process.

Institutional Policies toward Foreign Students

The central concern of this sub-theme is a simple question: "Why do institutions accept foreign students?" General policies and philosophies of higher education institutions to accept foreign students, if any, are to be discussed. More specifically, rather than assuming foreign students are simply another identified group within the student body, it would seem worthwhile to ask again several central questions about the institution's interest in foreign students in particular. "What is the ultimate purpose of foreign student education?" "Is it different from the purpose of education for domestic students?" "What is the significance of the existence of foreign students for the institution's goals and purposes?"

Such a discussion might usefully touch on the disparity between the ideal expressed in the institution's formal policy or mission statement and the status quo. The causes of the disparity may be seen as the problems which institutions are facing vis-a-vis foreign students, and it would be helpful to exchange views and experiences of the institutions on how they have been coping with these problems and what kind of innovative approaches they have been taking.

Given the direct role of foreign students in institutional instruction and research, the impact of foreign students must be considered, and particularly their broader *impact in the internationalisation of higher education* should be stressed in the light of the main theme of the Seminar. The discussion would also be closely related to the question of *cost/benefit* of foreign students. There have been various efforts to identify the cost/benefit of foreign students for host countries as well as host institutions. These efforts have provided no clear-cut conclusion, partly because there is disagreement over the costs and benefits to be taken into account, partly because the calculation of costs and benefits is, itself, difficult (the latter, for example, including longer run, indirect, and intangible benefits), and partly because there has been an opinion which claims that such an "economic" analysis does not suit pedagogical phenomena. However, host countries and institutions would not accept, or at least would try to decrease the number of foreign students if the costs seemed to exceed the benefit at the margin. Therefore, it would be useful to list the costs and benefits of foreign students for host institutions and to present estimates of their magnitude, where available.

Financial aspects must be given due consideration in the discussion on this sub-theme. These aspects include policies on tuition and other fees for foreign students and arrangements for scholarships and grants provided by governments and higher education institutions. Financial aid by governments to higher education institutions for foreign students should be discussed as well, since this financing mechanism has emerged as one of the important determinants of the institutional attitude/policy toward foreign students. Simply, some institutions could be encouraged to develop new and innovative approaches to address foreign student problems if the additional income derived from foreign students, particularly those paying full costs, were allowed to remain within institutions and programmes.

Although this sub-theme is intended to deal with institutional policies, it would also be appropriate and necessary to discuss *current trends in governments' policies* toward foreign students and their influence on the policies and practices of the institutions. Such a discussion cuts across most of the institutional policy dimensions already noted, to include government policies directed specifically toward foreign students, government interest in "internationalisation" more widely, a country-wide assessment of costs and benefits of foreign student enrolments, and governmental policies affecting the financing of higher education in general and foreign students in particular.

Specific Measures and Programmes for Foreign Students

The discussion under this sub-theme will focus on institutional policies and arrangements for the provision of instruction to foreign students. Generally, study programmes and innovative arrangements may be judged by the extent to which they accommodate and exploit foreign student abilities and strengths and help such students equip themselves with knowledge and skills relevant for future work in their home countries.

However, since there are a number of different stakeholders in foreign student education, it is necessary to consider for whose sake certain measures and programmes are designed. The stakeholders include home and host country governments, institutions and individual professors in the host country, foreign students themselves, institutions in the sending countries and sponsors of foreign students. The interests of these stakeholders might well diverge. It could be possible, for example, that certain measures are taken for the convenience of the host institutions rather than for the real needs of foreign students or their sponsors. Usually, the measures actually implemented reflect a balance among the various needs and purposes of affected stakeholders.

Admission is the first, and a most crucial point, of a series of educational arrangements for foreign students. Interpreted broadly as the initial encounter between a student and an institution, admission consists of a balance between two processes: the process on the institution's side to select capable students and the process on the student's side to select the proper institution. Changes in admission requirements for foreign students (particularly where they differ from those in place for domestic students), new approaches such as trial-admissions, and governmental policies applied to foreign students affect the balance on the institution's side and should be discussed. Initiatives by governments to regulate admissions (e.g., control of the regional distribution of foreign students, direct placement of foreign students) could also be discussed. For students, the means by which information is made available prior to enrolment, particularly in the home countries, should be a key point of discussion.

Provision for *language preparation* is another institutional initiative in the series of educational arrangements for foreign students. The effectiveness of standardized tests and courses, particularly in terms of assessing and developing language skills required in the classroom and laboratories has been a controversial topic in many OECD countries. It would be useful to share information and results of new approaches as well as how more traditional methods have been adapted to serve a larger and more diverse foreign student population. Further, the specific organisational arrangements for language preparation in institutions merit discussion. Who is charged with the responsibility for such programmes? Might other organisational units be better situated to provide language instruction?

Such innovative approaches as providing instruction in the mother tongues of foreign students, as well as in international languages, should also be discussed. In certain fields of study or disciplines, courses delivered in the mother tongue may reach larger numbers at lower cost than courses conducted in the language of instruction in the host country. But, do matters of quality and content detract from such an approach? Experiences in Member countries may illuminate the extent to which courses conducted in the language of the host country or in an international language best serve students and their sponsors (as opposed to the host country and institution).

The structure and content of study programmes constitute the principal means by which institutions adapt to the needs of foreign students. At one end of the spectrum, institutions may provide general academic courses identical to those offered for domestic students, while development of specifically designed programmes of study for use in a particular country setting would be at the other end. Preparatory/introductory courses seem to represent a level of adaptation in between. Given the diversity of foreign students in terms of their needs, the question to be answered is: for which purposes and for which students are certain approaches appropriate and effective? An important, related question is how are systems and institutions of higher education to determine which approaches and contents are most effective for particular needs of foreign students and their sponsors? This question touches on the issue of the extent to which courses and training in the host country are relevant to the situation which the foreign student will encounter at work back in his/her home country following course completion.

Although the knowledge produced and transferred in higher education institutions is generally broadly applicable in a variety of contexts, the *teaching methods* in institutions often reflect the socio-cultural framework of the countries in which they are located. For foreign students, the cultural differences so prominently embedded in teaching methods may be a greater problem than the contents of study. Therefore, approaches used to minimize these difficulties, such as academic counselling, information systems, and tutoring should be reviewed and discussed. Programmes intended to heighten sensitivity among the faculty to cultural differences might also be noted.

Degree granting is another important issue. Experiences with special degree courses and non-degree courses, attempts to establish equivalences among degrees from different countries, and particular difficulties or restrictions on degree granting in certain fields of study could usefully be exchanged.

Finally, arching across all of these initiatives and approaches is the question of *evaluation*. To what extent have institutions assessed the adequacy and effectiveness of programmes for foreign students? What practices, approaches, and methodology have been used? Are such assessments, in fact, used to modify programmes?

Social and Cultural Adjustment by Foreign Students

Social and cultural adjustments may be no less important than academic arrangements for increasing the likelihood that foreign students will learn and successfully complete their studies. Thus, the purpose of the discussion of this sub-theme will be to identify those approaches and programmes which have been most effective at facilitating the adjustment of foreign students into the host country (and enabling re-adjustment for graduates returning home). Most specifically, *social programmes* intended to overcome problems of social and cultural adjustment, such as introductory/preparatory courses, host family programmes, field trips, and social counsellors would be the major institutional efforts under review.

Most of the problems of social and cultural adjustment occur in *human relations* viz. the daily contact with people in the community as well as professors, teaching assistants and classmates. Social and cultural adjustments might, therefore, be eased through support systems established by or through the institution for domestic and foreign students or through programmes and arrangements specifically directed toward foreign students themselves. The broadly based institutional programmes facilitate improved sensitivity to human relations in general. The success of these programmes in addressing human relations problems encountered by foreign students might be gauged at the Seminar.

Alternatively, *assistance given on a voluntary basis* by various non-profit organisations, student associations and community people has been considered as even more effective than specialised counsellors. These groups draw on people from the host country who have lived in the home countries of foreign students and are, therefore, conversant with the differences between the two cultures. Beyond these programmes, it would also be useful to look into informal arrangements among foreign students themselves. Might the small-scale informal support mechanisms currently serving individual students be organised or tapped in some way for the benefit of all?

All programmes addressing adjustment needs must be developed in response to a larger question. How far should foreign students adapt themselves to the host country? This is a twofold question asking of both the "width" and "depth" of the adjustment. The width of the adjustment refers to the specific aspects of social customs and cultural practices to which foreign students should adjust themselves. Matters of religion or marriage fall outside the scope of appropriate adjustment. So, for example, a foreign student accompanied by his/her spouse should not change their relationship at home according to the culture in the host country. This means that there must be a demarcation of the range of necessary adaptation. The depth of the adjustment refers to the amount of integration necessary to overcome isolation, ghettoization and failure in study. Alternatively, too much adjustment may lead to subsequent difficulties in cultural identification, readjustment back in the home country, and "brain drain." The merits and limits of these positions need to be discussed, particularly with respect to the types of programmes implemented to facilitate the adjustment of foreign students into the host society.

Finally, *support systems* for such problems as accommodation, emergency funds, working permits and health/medical services warrant some attention and discussion. In some countries, difficulties encountered in obtaining accommodation are among the most serious problems reported by foreign students. Due to rapidly changing economic conditions in the developing and developed world, access to emergency funds has become even more important. Foreign students, especially those privately funded, are most vulnerable to changes in exchange rates and inflation in the host country. Lack of funds together with the subsequent necessity to earn a living are one of the main causes of drop-out and exam failure among foreign students. The issue here is the extent to which host institutions should bear the responsibility for establishing separate support systems for foreign students. Whatever the appropriate policy, innovative approaches might usefully be shared at the Seminar.

Future Work

In discussing the issues outlined above, the Seminar is expected to make suggestions on what further efforts need to be made in this area in terms of international collaboration, additional studies and, in particular, possible future work within the CERI programme.

Appendix 2

FOREIGN STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES*

[Editor's Note] The attached statistical data were excerpted from "Foreign Student Enrollment in OECD Countries: A Statistical Overview" compiled by the OECD/CERI Secretariat, which was distributed at the Seminar. According to the compiler, these statistics are based on the data in UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks as well as the data submitted by some of the countries participating in this seminar but is of a provisional and preliminary nature, containing some figures which will need to be confirmed.

Table 1

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF FOREIGN STUDENTS ENROLLED AT HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS WORLD TOTAL AND OECD COUNTRIES TOTAL

(in thousands)

Year	World Total	%	OECD Countries	%
1960	245	100	167	68
1965	362	100	243	67
1970	502	100	344	69
1975	697	100	500	72
1980	977	100	711	73
1984	927	95	781	80

1. For the comparison purposes, OECD countries include all the current 24 Member countries and one associate Member (Yugoslavia) throughout the years shown, though some were not Members previously.
2. 1960: 109 countries are reported including 24 OECD Member countries (except Luxembourg). As date for two large, non-OECD Member host countries (the Philippines and the USSR) for this year are not available, 1965 data are used (8,677 for the Philippines and 16,200 for the USSR).
3. 1965: 120 countries are reported including all the OECD countries.
4. 1970: 100 countries are reported including 24 OECD Member countries (except Ireland).
5. 1975: 102 countries are reported including 24 OECD Member countries (except Iceland).
6. 1984: Foreign students enrolled in these 50 host countries represent about 95% of the known world total (OECD Member countries exclude Iceland, Luxembourg, Norway and Sweden).

SOURCE: Calculated on the basis of statistical date provided by the UNESCO STATISTICAL YEARBOOK 1965, 1970, 1978-79, 1984, 1986 and 1987.

---

* Paper distributed as a background document for discussion at the seminar.

Table 2

NUMBER OF FOREIGN STUDENTS HOSTED IN INDIVIDUAL OECD MEMBER COUNTRIES AND THEIR COMPARISON TO THE WORLD FOREIGN STUDENTS POPULATION

Countries	1970	%	1975	%	1980	%	1984	%	1985
USA	144,708	28.8	179,350	25.7	311,882	31.9	342,110	35.1	343,780
France	34,500	6.9	93,750	13.5	115,202	11.8	133,843	13.7	–
Germany	27,769	5.5	53,560	7.7	61,841	6.3	76,918	7.9	79,354
UK	24,606	4.9	49,032	7.0	56,003	5.7	42,267	4.3	–
Canada	22,263	4.4	22,700	3.3	28,443	2.9	32,625	3.3	29,496
Italy	14,357	2.9	18,921	2.7	27,784	2.8	27,548	2.8	–
Belgium	8,611	1.7	9,748	1.4	12,875	1.3	21,188	2.2	24,761
Japan	4,447	0.9	5,541	0.8	6,543	0.7	10,697	1.1	22,154(87)
Switzerland	9,469	1.9	10,113	1.5	14,716	1.5	16,830	1.7	17,396
Australia	7,525	1.5	8,356	1.2	8,777	0.9	12,028	1.2	16,734(87)
Austria	8,573	1.7	10,320	1.5	12,885	1.3	14,858	1.5	15,388
Sweden	4,000	0.8	2,723	0.4	13,182	1.3	–	–	–
Spain	10,575	2.1	8,909	1.3	10,997	1.1	10,997	1.1	–
Yugoslavia	3,239	0.6	2,358	0.3	4,426	0.5	7,982	0.8	–
Greece	5,796	1.2	10,049	1.4	8,304	0.8	7,148	0.7	–
Turkey	6,125	1.2	5,907	0.8	6,378	0.7	6,732	0.7	–
Netherlands	1,721	0.3	-	-	4,128	0.4	5,536	0.6	5,705
Denmark	1,644	0.3	1,958	0.3	3,035	0.3	3,101	0.3	–
Ireland	-	-	1,513	0.2	2,845	0.3	2,684	0.3	–
New Zealand	2,495	0.5	2,965	0.4	2,464	0.3	2,408	0.2	–
Portugal	902	0.2	672	0.1	1,318	0.1	2,401	0.2	–
Norway	420	0.1	931	0.1	1,114	0.1	-	-	–
Finland	250	0.0	529	0.1	610	0.1	929	0.1	1,024(86)
Iceland	69	0.0	120	0.0	–	–	–	–	–
Luxembourg	66	0.0	38	0.0	49	0.0	–	–	–
OECD TOTAL	344,130[68.6]		500,063[71.7]		715,801[73.3]		780,830[80.0]		
WORLD TOTAL	502,000[100]		697,000[100]		977,000[100]		918,350[95.0]		

Sweden: For 1975, first-year University students only.

SOURCE: Calculated on the basis of statistical data provided in UNESCO STATISTICAL YEARBOOK 1965, 1970, 1978-79, 1982, 1984, 1986 and 1987 as well as the data submitted by some participating countries.

Table 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS BY REGION OF ORIGIN AND TYPE OF SENDING COUNTRIES: 22 OECD MEMBER COUNTRIES

%

Host Countries(year)	Total	Africa	North America	South America	Asia	Oceania	Europe	Not Specified
USA(85)	343,780	8.5	10.0	5.4	52.3	1.0	8.5	14.2
France(84)	133,848	57.7	4.5	3.7	16.2	0.1	16.7	1.0
Germany(85)	79,354	5.8	6.6	3.2	41.6	0.2	40.8	1.6
UK(83)	45,416	22.3	9.1	1.9	48.9	1.3	16.3	0.2
Canada(85)	29,496	15.3	15.0	2.1	52.7	0.9	12.7	1.3
Italy(83)	28,068	7.1	4.0	2.7	28.7	0.1	57.4	0.0
Belgium(85)	24,761	33.8	2.2	2.3	10.0	0.0	50.0	1.6
Japan(87)	22,154	1.0	4.5	2.2	89.0	0.7	2.6	0.0
Switzerland(85)	17,396	5.7	4.5	3.4	7.8	0.2	71.0	7.3
Australia(87)	16,734	1.9	2.0	0.3	75.4	9.0	3.2	8.2
Austria(85)	15,388	3.7	3.6	1.5	23.9	0.2	64.5	2.5
Sweden(78)	13,182	4.4	3.6	4.2	10.5	0.2	63.8	13.3
Spain(80)	10,997	3.7	11.6	20.6	13.6	0.1	11.1	39.4
Yugoslavia(84)	7,982	11.9	1.0	0.2	50.2	0.2	36.3	0.2
Greece(82)	6,683	6.7	4.6	0.5	82.8	1.2	4.0	0.1
Turkey(84)	6,732	3.3	0.4	0.0	87.8	0.0	6.8	1.7
Netherlands(85)	5,705	5.3	7.1	3.0	23.4	0.9	59.3	0.9
Denmark(84)	3,101	2.1	7.1	2.1	8.5	0.4	79.3	0.3
Ireland(84)	2,684	11.8	15.1	0.4	23.8	1.1	47.8	0.0
New Zealand(84)	2,408	2.0	4.1	1.1	56.1	34.4	2.1	0.2
Portugal(84)	2,401	60.8	2.5	30.9	0.7	0.4	4.7	0.0
Finland(86)	1,024	17.6	11.7	2.0	17.3	0.4	48.9	2.1
OECD Total		17.8	7.7	4.2	40.9	0.9	20.8	7.5
(reference) World Total (50 countries)	933,559	19.5	7.3	3.8	43.3	0.8	18.3	6.9

SOURCE: Tabulated on the basis of statistics provided in UNESCO STATISTICAL YEARBOOK 1982, 1984, 1986 and 1987 as well as the data submitted by some of the participating countries.

According to the regional classification of UNESCO, Turkey and Cyprus are classified as part of Asia, not in Europe, and the Caribbean, Central America and Puerto Rico are included in North America.

Table 4

MAIN COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS WITHIN 22 OECD HOST COUNTRIES

Host Countries (Total of Foreign Students/Year)	Main Countries of Origin (in order of Number of Students)		%
USA (343,780/1985)	China	32,400	9.4
	Malaysia	19,758	5.7
	South Korea	16,012	4.7
	India	13,791	4.0
	Canada	13,227	3.8
	Iran	12,198	3.5
	Nigeria	11,770	3.4
	Japan	11,467	3.3
	Hong Kong	9,193	2.7
	Indonesia	7,048	2.1
France (133,848/1984)	Morocco	25,778	19.3
	Algeria	10,961	8.2
	Tunisia	8,028	6.0
	Iran	5,361	4.0
	Lebanon	4,589	3.4
	Cameroon	4,486	3.4
	Madagascar	4,401	3.3
	Greece	3,649	2.7
	Germany	3,643	2.7
	United States	3,549	2.7
Germany (79,354/1985)	Turkey	10,060	12.7
	Iran	7,872	9.9
	Greece	6,693	8.4
	United States	4,042	5.1
	Austria	3,960	5.0
	South Korea	2,673	3.4
	France	2,654	3.3
	Italy	2,266	2.9
	Indonesia	2,260	2.8
	Netherlands	1,985	2.5
United Kingdom (45,416/1983)	Hong Kong	5,079	11.2
	Malaysia	4,922	10.8
	Nigeria	3,423	7.5
	United States	2,751	6.1
	Iran	1,977	4.4

	Greece	1,959	4.3
	Iraq	1,557	3.4
	Germany	1,236	2.7
	Singapore	1,083	2.4
	Cyprus	779	1.7
Canada (29,496/1985)	Hong Kong	7,723	26.2
	United States	2,462	8.3
	Malaysia	2,346	8.0
	United Kingdom	1,540	5.2
	China	1,104	3.7
	Singapore	1,090	3.7
	Morocco	950	3.2
	India	838	2.8
	Trinidad and Tobago	814	2.8
	France	599	2.0
Italy (28,068/1983)	Greece	12,222	43.5
	Iran	3,534	12.6
	Germany	1,740	6.2
	Jordan	1,424	5.1
	Israel	1,163	4.1
	United States	976	3.5
	Lebanon	680	2.4
	Switzerland	520	1.9
	France	336	1.2
	Venezuela	278	1.0
Belgium (24,761/1985)	Morocco	3,697	14.9
	Italy	3,201	12.9
	Zaire	2,168	8.8
	Netherlands	1,734	7.0
	France	1,563	6.3
	Luxembourg	1,017	4.1
	Greece	843	3.4
	Bulgaria	753	3.0
	Germany	713	2.9
	Lebanon	629	2.5
Japan (22,154/1987)	China	5,661	25.6
	Taiwan	5,317	24.0
	South Korea	4,852	21.9
	Malaysia	1,120	5.1
	United States	934	4.2
	Thailand	736	3.3
	Indonesia	546	2.5
	Hong Kong	401	1.8

	Philippines	261	1.2
	Brazil	237	1.1
Switzerland (17,396/1985)	Germany	3,810	21.9
	Italy	2,415	13.9
	France	2,192	12.6
	Spain	695	4.0
	United States	541	3.1
	Austria	512	2.9
	Greece	435	2.5
	United Kingdom	342	2.0
	Iran	302	1.7
	Turkey	252	1.4
Australia (16,734/1987)	Malaysia	7,026	42.0
	Hong Kong	1,703	10.2
	Indonesia	1,103	6.6
	Singapore	830	5.0
	New Zealand	487	2.9
	China	458	2.7
	Papua New Guinea	342	2.0
	Thailand	288	1.7
	United Kingdom	218	1.3
	United States	203	1.2
Austria (15,388/1985)	Germany	4,352	28.3
	Italy	2,825	18.4
	Iran	1,364	8.9
	Turkey	828	5.4
	Greece	572	3.7
	United States	404	2.6
	Yugoslavia	377	2.4
	Luxembourg	351	2.3
	Poland	246	1.6
	Japan	207	1.3
Sweden (13,182/1978)	Finland	3,938	29.9
	Greece	794	6.0
	Norway	721	5.5
	Iran	652	4.9
	United States	387	2.9
	Denmark	381	2.9
	Germany	372	2.8
	Poland	352	2.7
	Iceland	340	2.6
	United Kingdom	331	2.5

Spain (10,997/1980)	Venezuela	948	8.6
	Iran	632	5.7
	Unites States	585	5.3
	Argentina	399	3.6
	Syria	317	2.9
	Jordan	305	2.8
	Morocco	277	2.5
	Chile	236	2.1
	Cuba	228	2.1
	Peru	215	2.0
Yugoslavia (7,982/1984)	Greece	2,644	33.1
	Jordan	1,466	18.4
	Iraq	836	10.5
	Syria	760	9.5
	Palestine refugees	409	5.1
	Algeria	213	2.7
	Lebanon	180	2.3
	Libya	127	1.6
	Sudan	124	1.6
	Turkey	114	1.4
Turkey (6,732/1984)	Iran	2,818	41.9
	Cyprus	1,153	17.1
	Jordan	707	10.5
	Syria	644	9.6
	Greece	373	5.5
	Iraq	270	4.0
	Pakistan	90	1.3
	Israel	85	1.3
	Sudan	85	1.3
	Palestine refugees	32	0.5
Greece (6,683/1982)	Cyprus	4,229	63.3
	Jordan	429	6.4
	Turkey	427	6.4
	United States	252	3.8
	Syria	214	3.2
	Sudan	128	1.9
	Albania	100	1.5
	New Zealand	75	1.1
	Nigeria	69	1.0
	Israel	63	0.9
Netherlands (5,705/1985)	Germany	1,271	22.2
	Indonesia	530	9.2
	Belgium	444	7.7

	United Kingdom	362	6.6
	Turkey	374	6.5
	United States	306	5.3
	Italy	221	3.8
	Spain	182	3.1
	France	123	2.1
	Morocco	122	2.1
Denmark (3,101/1984)	Norway	663	21.4
	Iceland	608	20.0
	Germany	312	10.1
	Sweden	286	9.2
	United Kingdom	210	6.8
	United States	183	5.9
	Viet-nam	75	2.4
	France	69	2.2
	Turkey	56	1.8
	Netherlands	52	1.7
Ireland (2,684/1984)	United Kingdom	982	36.6
	United States	287	10.7
	Malaysia	220	8.2
	Germany	118	4.4
	Hong Kong	64	2.4
	Canada	59	2.2
	Iraq	54	2.0
	Nigeria	53	2.0
	Mauritius	52	1.9
	South Africa	37	1.4
New Zealand (2,408/1984)	Malaysia	784	32.6
	Fiji	470	19.5
	Singapore	233	9.7
	Pacific Islands	112	4.7
	United States	98	4.1
	Tonga	96	4.0
	Samoa	95	3.9
	India	70	2.9
	Thailand	55	2.3
	Indonesia	52	2.2
Portugal (2,401/1984)	Brazil	475	20.0
	Guinea-Bissau	433	18.0
	Cape Verde	377	15.7
	Angola	305	12.7
	Venezuela	254	10.6
	Sao Tome & Principe	162	6.7

	Mozambique	143	6.0
	Spain	46	1.9
	United States	40	1.7
	Germany	23	1.0
Finland (1,024/1986)	Sweden	125	12.2
	Germany	102	10.0
	United States	102	10.0
	Iran	44	4.3
	United Kingdom	39	3.8
	Nigeria	32	3.1
	USSR	30	2.9
	Poland	29	2.8
	France	25	2.4
	Japan	25	2.4

"China" includes "Taiwan" (except for Japan).

SOURCE: Tabulated on the basis of statistics provided in UNESCO STATISTICAL YEARBOOK 1982,1984,1986 and 1987 as well as the data submitted by some of the participating countries.

Table 5

PERCENTAGE OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS: 25 OECD MEMBER COUNTRIES

(in order of highest percentage for the latest year)

Host Countries		1970	1975	1980	1985(a)
Belgium	(1)	75,106	83,360	95,246	103,598
	(2)	8,611	9,748	12,875	24,761
	(3)	11.5	11.7	13.5	23.9
Switzerland	(1)	42,178	52,623	85,127	110,111
	(2)	9,469	10,113	14,716	17,396
	(3)	22.5	19.2	17.3	15.8
France	(1)	661,156	811,258	869,788	967,490(84)
	(2)	34,500	93,750	115,202	133,848
	(3)	5.2	11.6	13.2	13.8
Austria	(1)	59,778	96,736	- -	173,215
	(2)	8,573	10,320	- -	15,388
	(3)	14.3	10.7	- -	8.9
Sweden	(1)	141,218	162,640	198,798(78)	220,947
	(2)	4,000	2,723	13,182(78)	- -
	(3)	2.8	1.7	6.6(78)	- -

Germany	(1)	503,819	1,041,225	1,223,221	1,550,211
	(2)	27,769	53,560	61,841	79,354
	(3)	5.5	5.1	5.1	5.1
Greece	(1)	85,776	117,246	117,407(79)	137,453(82)
	(2)	5,796	10,049	8,304(79)	6,683
	(3)	6.8	8.6	7.1(79)	4.9
United Kingdom	(1)	601,300	732,947	827,146	1,000,168(83)
	(2)	24,606	49,032	56,003	45,416
	(3)	4.1	6.7	6.8	4.5
Australia	(1)	179,664	274,738	323,716	393,734(87)
	(2)	7,525	8,356	8,777	16,734
	(3)	4.2	3.0	2.7	4.3
Ireland	(1)	28,501	46,174	54,746	67,378(84)
	(2)	- -	1,513	2,845	2,684
	(3)	- -	3.3	5.2	4.0
Canada	(1)	477,292	546,769	627,617	752,276
	(2)	22,263	22,700	28,443	29,496
	(3)	4.7	4.2	4.5	3.9
Iceland	(1)	1,706	2,970	4,383	4,949
	(2)	69	120	- -	- -
	(3)	4.0	4.0	- -	- -
Denmark	(1)	76,024	110,271	106,241	114,559(84)
	(2)	1,644	1,958	3,035	3,101
	(3)	2.2	1.8	2.9	2.7
New Zealand	(1)	- -	66,178	76,643	95,754(84)
	(2)	2,495	2,965	2,464	2,408
	(3)	- -	4.5	3.2	2.5
United States	(1)	8,498,117	11,184,859	12,096,895	12,247,055
	(2)	144,708	179,350	311,882	343,780
	(3)	1.7	1.6	2.6	2.8
Italy	(1)	687,242	976,712	1,117,742	1,181,953(84)
	(2)	14,357	18,921	27,784	27,548
	(3)	2.1	1.9	2.5	2.3
Portugal	(1)	50,095	79,702	92,152	112,851(84)
	(2)	902	672	- -	2,401

	(3)	1.8	0.8	- -	2.1
Yugoslavia	(1)	261,203	394,992	411,995	360,397(84)
	(2)	3,239	2,358	4,426	7,982
	(3)	1.2	0.6	1.1	2.2
Turkey	(1)	169,793	237,604	246,183	417,225(84)
	(2)	6,125	5,907	- -	6,732
	(3)	3.6	2.5	- -	1.6
Spain	(1)	224,904	540,238	681,022	830,664
	(2)	10,575	8,909	10,997	- -
	(3)	4.7	1.6	1.6	- -
Netherlands	(1)	231,167	288,026	360,033	390,320
	(2)	1,721	- -	4,128	5,705
	(3)	0.7	- -	1.1	1.5
Norway	(1)	50,047	66,628	79,117	94,089
	(2)	420	931	- -	- -
	(3)	0.8	1.4	- -	- -
Finland	(1)	57,739	75,765	84,176	95,987(86)
	(2)	250	529	610	1,024
	(3)	0.4	0.7	0.7	1.1
Japan	(1)	1,819,323	2,248,903	2,412,117	3,048,856(87)
	(2)	4,447	5,541	6,543	22,154
	(3)	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.7
OECD Aggregate	(1)	14,955,010	19,951,021	21,940,977	22,607,387(84)
	(2)	341,635	500,063	715,801	780,830
	(3)	2.3	2.5	3.3	3.5

(a) Or nearest year.
(1) Total enrollment.
(2) Foreign Students.
(3) Percentage.

1. Switzerland: For 1970 and 1975, data refer to universities and equivalent institutions only.
2. Belgium, Canada, France and Finland: Data refer to universities and equivalent institutions only.
3. Sweden: The number of foreign students for 1975 is first-year university students only.
4. OECD Aggregate: For 1970, Ireland and New Zealand are not included, for 1975, the Netherlands and for 1980. Iceland. The 1980 aggregate includes figures for 1981 for Austria and Turkey, 1979 for Greece and Norway, and 1978 for Sweden. 1985 data exclude Iceland, Luxembourg, Norway and Sweden.

SOURCE: Tabulated on the basis of data provided in UNESCO STATISTICAL YEARBOOK 1982,1984,1986 and 1987 as well as the data submitted by some of the participating countries.

R.I.H.E. PUBLICATION IN ENGLISH

International Seminar Reports

1. *Perspectives for the Future System of Higher Education*, 1977, 149p. (out of print)
2. *Higher Education for the 1980's – Challenges and Responses* – 1980, 189p. (out of print)
3. *Innovation in Higher Education – Exchange of Experiences and Ideas in International Perspective* – 1981, 179p. (out of print)
4. *Comparative Approaches to Higher Education – Curriculum, Teaching and Innovations in an Age of Financial Difficulties* – 1983, 248p.
5. *The Changing Functions of Higher Education – Implications for Innovation* – 1985, 219p.
6. *Higher Education Expansion in Asia*, 1985, 166p.
7. *Public and Private Sectors in Asian Higher Education Systems*, 1987, 97p.
8. *The Role of Government in Asian Higher Education Systems – Issues and Prospects* – 1988, 125p.
9. *Foreign Students and Internationalization of Higher Education*, 1989, 300p.

R.I.H.E. International Publication Series

1. Motohisa Kaneko, *Enrollment Expansion in Postwar Japan*, 1987, 111p.
2. Zhang Guocai, *Higher Education Research in China* [Printed in English and in Chinese], 1989, 126p.
3. Yoshiya Abe (ed.), *Non-University Sector Higher Educaion in Japan*, 1989, 85p.
4. Motohisa Kaneko, *Financing Higher Education in Japan – Trends and Issues*, 1989, 120p.